

NEW EUROPE AND THE NEW WORLD
SIXTEENTH TO EIGHTEENTH CENTURIES

By E. H. DANCE, M.A.

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BRITISH AND FOREIGN HISTORY

BOOK TWO

NEW EUROPE AND THE NEW WORLD

*Sixteenth to Eighteenth
Centuries*

BY

E. H. DANCE, M.A.

With Illustrations and Maps



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PREFACE

INSULARITY in history teaching has gone the way of insularity in foreign policy, and British History has to be taught nowadays in relation to the history of lands which are not British. This series has been written in response to a demand for a text-book of European and World History which does not sacrifice anything essential in British History. The main theme, therefore, is the History of the World ; but as our civilisation is "European", there is more about Europe than about any other continent ; and as we are British, there is more about Britons than about any other single people—especially during those epochs in which the British contribution to World History has been vital : *e.g.* during the development of Parliament or the British Empire, or the Industrial Revolution. Nevertheless, British affairs have not been allowed more than their share of the narrative, because one of the main objects of the book is to foster a cosmopolitan, rather than an insular, view of history.

Social History has been given full prominence throughout.

As regards methods of presentation, the series follows the same lines as the author's *WORLD BEFORE BRITAIN* and *BRITAIN IN WORLD HISTORY*. Each chapter has at least one Source Reading, and it is hoped that these, as well as the illustrations, will be useful not only for their interest, but also as teaching material. The Exercises are based directly on the reading matter and the illustrations, except that the Questions in Section "B" need some independent work other than mere preparation from the text-book.

The limits of this book are roughly the end of the Middle Ages and the fall of Napoleon. It begins, however, with a rapid recapitulation of medieval History, the object of which is not only to emphasize, more than is usually done, the medieval basis of much of the change to modern times, but also to soften the abrupt break which so often takes place between one year's work and the next in the school course.

E. H. D.

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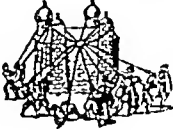

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TIME CHART: 1450 to 1650 A.D.

(Scale: 1 inch=40 years)

	A.D.	BRITISH HISTORY	FOREIGN HISTORY (Non-European History in Italics)
		1453 End of Hundred	Years War; Capture of Constantinople by Turks
	1475	1476 Printing in England	
			1492 Columbus discovers America
	1500		1473-1543 Copernicus 1475-1564 Michelangelo
	1525	1509-47 Henry VIII 1530 Death of Wolsey	1519-22 Magellan expedition 1483-1546 Luther 1515-47 Francis I (France) 1519-58 Charles V (Emperor) 1520-66 Suleiman the Magnificent 1533-84 Ivan the Terrible
	1550		
		1558-1603 Queen Elizabeth I	1556-98 Phillip II (Spain) 1556-1605 Akbar the Great 1562-98 French Religious Wars
	1575	1577-80 Drake's Voyage round the world 1588 The Spanish Armada	1584 William the Silent assassinated
	1600	1564-1616 Shakespeare 1607-9 Virginia founded	1573-1620 Wan Li (China) 1564-1642 Galileo
		1603-25 James I 1620 New England founded	
	1625	1628 Petition of Right 1625-49 Charles I	1618-48 Thirty Years War 1624-42 Richelieu in power
		1642-9 Civil War	1644 Manchus conquer China 1627-58 Shah Jahan
	1650		

INTRODUCTION

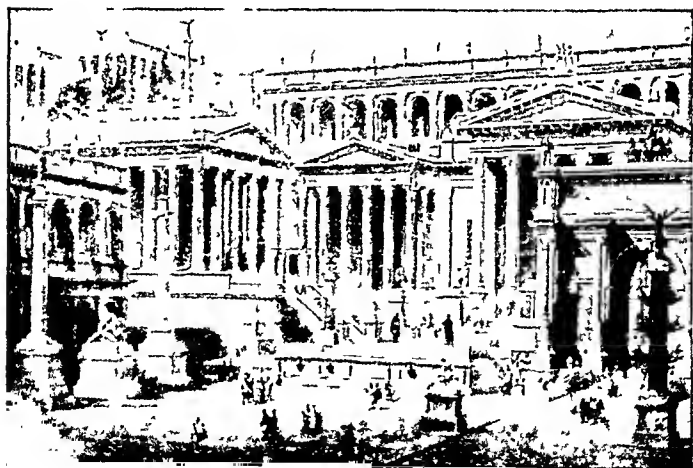
THE MIDDLE AGES

We modern people live in an age when great changes are going on all the time. At the beginning of this twentieth century there were no cinemas, no radio, no aeroplanes, and hardly any motor-cars ; and no pedestrian crossings, because there was very little danger in crossing the road anywhere in our towns. The fastest things on earth were the railway trains, and not many of these ever reached sixty miles an hour. It took about a week to get from London to New York, and about a month to get from New York to Tokio or Peking. When new buildings were being erected there were no bulldozers to dig the foundations—only men working with spades ; and the bricks and other materials had to be brought in horse-carts. In many parts of the world farming, too, has been speeded up by the introduction of machinery. In 1900 there were no tractors, because the internal combustion engine was so new ; and although “ binder ” reaping machines had been invented, they had to be drawn slowly by horses. Combine harvesters, which thresh while they reap and save months of corn-storage, were quite unknown.

It is the same in the world as a whole. There, too, great changes are taking place. When the twentieth century began, Europe was the most important part of the world. Since then, America has become more important than Europe, and the peoples of Asia and Africa are playing a greater and greater part in world affairs. New countries have come into existence all over the

world, especially in Asia. Even in Europe, two of the chief states (Germany and Italy) are not much more than a hundred years old.

The Middle Ages. Changes like these happen in our days more quickly than ever before, but it is four or five hundred years since Europe and the lives of its peoples began to alter with ever-increasing speed. That is why we always count the last four or five centuries together as "Modern Times." Before that, for a thousand years or more, change was very much slower, and it is these thousand or so years which we call the "Middle Ages"—from the time when western Europe ceased to be ruled by the Roman Empire, in the fifth century A.D., till the fifteenth century, when changes began to come thick and fast, as it seemed to the people then.



A street scene under the Roman Empire
(Compare this with the street scene on page 9.)

The Break-up of the Roman Empire. It was with the break-up of the Roman Empire that the Middle Ages began. The highly civilised provinces of the Romans were gradually overrun by "barbarians," who were far less civilised, and step by step the pleasures and comforts of Roman life disappeared—their books and theatres and hot baths; the shops and the fountains of their city streets; and, above all, the law and order which the Romans had brought into all the provinces of their empire. For a long time Europe was much less civilised, and so (because it is civilised peoples which find it easiest to bring about changes) it took a thousand years or so to re-establish in Europe a standard of life anything like as orderly and comfortable as that of the Romans.

Village Life in the Middle Ages. During all that time, century after century, children went on living very much as their fathers and grandfathers had done. They farmed with the same sort of spades and hoes, and in the same way, for generation after generation. Very few of them, indeed, ever saw a town; many of them never left their own villages—and if they had done, they would probably have seen only another village very like their own, divided into two or three huge fields, where the villagers had their allotments spread about in strips which changed hands every year. Many of the strips were farmed by the lord of the manor, who had more than anybody else. But every *villein* had his share, which he could cultivate for himself and his family when he was not working for his lord. Even the parson had his own strips of land—for he was an ordinary villager like the

others, spending most of his time farming, and occupied in church work only for daily services and special occasions such as baptisms, marriages, and funerals, and on all the holy days.

The Church. These holy days were "holidays" too in those Middle Ages, when almost everybody in Western Europe was a Catholic. Each of the bigger villages had its church—one church only, for then there was only the Catholic Church to which you could belong. There were feasts, as well as services, on Sundays and other "festivals," and fasting on Fridays and other special times of church mourning; and feasts and fasts alike were part of the regular routine of medieval life. Every West-European priest used the Latin prayer book, and he could speak Latin as well as read it. In fact, Latin was a "universal" language in the Middle Ages, because there was a Catholic (which means "universal") Church. Educated people in all countries wrote in Latin—books, letters, accounts, and in fact almost everything which had to be written. Most of these educated people were clergymen, so that clergymen were everywhere the authors of books and the secretaries of rich and powerful men and rulers. Consequently the Church and the clergy had a very great influence on affairs all over Europe. It was nearly always clergymen who were the teachers in the schools and universities—and most of their pupils became clergy in their turn.

Popes, Kings, and Emperors. This influence of the clergy spread far beyond ordinary church matters. The Pope was not only head of the Church, he was also the ruler of the Papal States, which covered the

central part of Italy. Here he was as powerful as any king, and some of the Popes tried to extend their power over other rulers as well. Some Popes made even kings obey them. One English king (John) had to hand over his kingdom to Pope Innocent III and acknowledge him as his overlord. One Holy Roman Emperor (Henry IV) spent several days barefoot in the snow outside the castle of Canossa, begging Pope Gregory VII inside to end the quarrel between them.

This quarrel was part of a long struggle between Popes and Emperors, which lasted for well over a century. The Popes knew that they were rulers of the "Universal" Church. The Emperors wanted also to be rulers of a "universal" empire, and it seemed as though there was not room in Europe for two universal rulers. In the long run this struggle was won by the Popes. Other kings refused to acknowledge the Emperor as their overlord, whereas all clergy and many kings had to obey the Popes. By the end of the Middle Ages the Holy Roman Empire was no longer very important, while the Popes were still among the strongest rulers in the world—not only in the Papal States but over all the clergy of Europe; even over those bishops and archbishops whose lands were sometimes as big as a small kingdom, and over the thousands of monasteries in every western country, with their vast farmlands and their schools and their quiet cloisters, where nearly every European book was written and copied.

The Crusades. One way in which the Popes proved their power was in persuading the other rulers of Europe to fit out those mighty military expeditions

to the East which are known as "crusades." The Crusades were really wars of the Catholic Church against Eastern infidels who held the holy places of Palestine. Yet the fighting was done not by bishops and priests but by the kings and nobles of Christendom, who, since they were all churchmen, wanted to spread the power of the Catholic Church further still. But these kings and nobles of Europe found that they were up against a foe too clever for them. The peoples of the East were in many ways more civilised than the peoples of medieval Europe, and in the Crusades the Europeans were defeated. Still, they learned from their Eastern enemies much useful knowledge—how to build better castles; how to furnish their homes



(Photo : Mansell)

Compton Castle, Devon

A rich man's house of the fifteenth century—built to stand warfare.

more comfortably ; how to deal more skilfully with illness ; and many other things besides.

Medieval Wars. The Crusades lasted for a very long time—about two centuries. In this they were like other medieval wars, one of which, as we British know well, was a Hundred Years War between England and France. We have all read books of adventures in these wars—with their great castles, their archers, and their heavily armoured horsemen. The castles and the armour were so strong and the arrows were so slight that the defenders nearly always had a much better chance than the attackers. It took weeks or months to capture a castle, and even longer to wipe out an army ; and so wars dragged on wearily, with



(Photo : Mansell)

Moreton Old Hall, Cheshire

A rich man's house of the sixteenth century—built for comfort and beauty.

the fighting finishing in autumn and beginning again in spring, year after year until none of the combatants thought it worth while to fight any longer. One of the signs that the Middle Ages were coming to an end was the introduction of gunpowder into Europe during the fourteenth century. It soon made an end of castles, because they could not stand up against it; the rich soon stopped building castles, and had more comfortable homes instead; and this all helped to make life in both wartime and peacetime very different from what it had been in the Middle Ages.

Town Life in the Middle Ages. Another change came over the lives of the people of Europe in the later part of the Middle Ages. More and more of them lived in towns—though there was never any land where most of the people were townsfolk, as they are in some modern countries. One reason for this change was that life was becoming safer. Kings and dukes and counts and bishops were ruling their peoples better and keeping so much better law and order that trade began to thrive everywhere. Merchants found it safe to use money for their buying and selling instead of having to carry out all their trade by barter. Roads were less infested by thieves than they had been, and the merchants ran fewer risks as they travelled in companies from market-town to market-town or from one great fair to another—perhaps with goods which had been made in their own country, perhaps with silks and spices and rugs and all the other rich wares of the East. Once they reached Europe, these Eastern goods were borne along the rivers or roads to famous fairs and markets, and from there they found their



(Photo: Mansell)

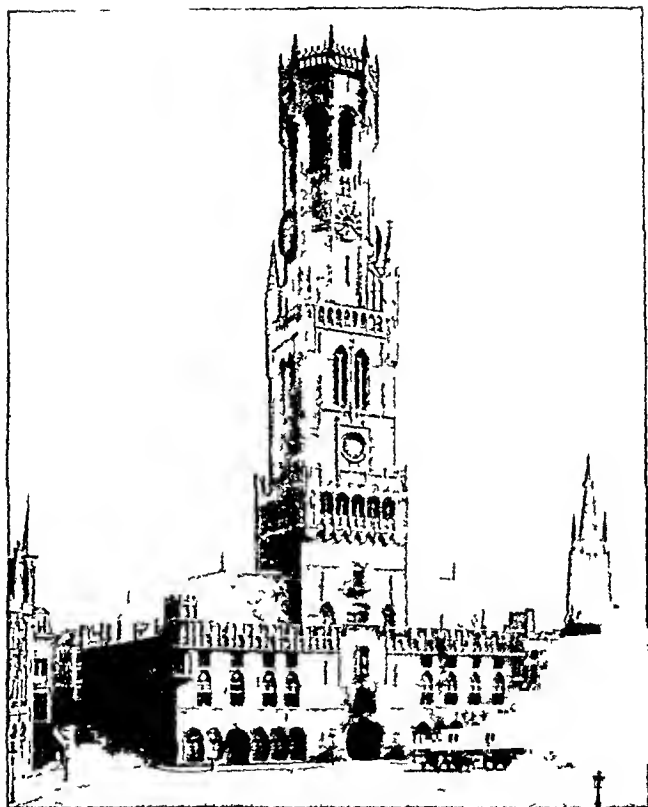
A Street Scene in the Middle Ages

Compare this with the street scenes on pages 2, 109, 191. The shops are (from left to right), a draper's, a furrier's, a barber's, and a spice-merchant's.

way to the homes of the better-off people everywhere.

All this made the towns of Europe busier than they had ever been before. Every town had its "Cheap-side" near the market, or its "Bread Street" for the bakers, or its "Tailors' Row" or "Fish Gate." In these streets were the shops where the skilled *journeymen* worked for their masters, and the young *apprentices*

A MARKET HALL



(Photo Mansell)

The Market Hall at Bruges in Flanders

From the top of the tower watchmen could see any enemy coming against the town.

What kind of architecture is this?

spent their teens learning the trade. At the town hall the most prosperous merchants and tradesmen made rules for the markets, and all other arrangements for governing the town and its citizens. Near by were the halls of the various *Gilds*—the Bakers' Gild, the Tailors' Gild, and so on—of which the masters were members. Here were fixed the quality and weight, or size, of the goods sold by all the members of the gild, and here were punished those whose wares were not up to the proper standard.

Some of these towns and cities—such as Bruges in Flanders, Frankfort in Germany, and many another—were meeting-places for the merchants of all nations. Many were well-known ports, like London and Bristol in England, and the great Italian ports of Pisa, Genoa, and, above all, Venice, whose merchants carried on most of the trade of the Mediterranean Sea.

All through the Middle Ages this “midland sea” was the centre of the chief trade of Europe—as it had been back in ancient times. But all this was now to change. Merchant ships were soon to be sailing far beyond the Mediterranean, to new-found lands across the greater seas. At the same time, many other changes (of which we are now to read) were to take place in the lives and religion and work of the people of Europe. In fact, by the end of the fifteenth century, when this book begins, we have really reached “the passing of the Middle Ages.”

EXERCISES ON THE INTRODUCTION

1. What do you know about the following : the Roman Empire ; monasteries ; the Crusades ; wars in the Middle Ages ; medieval castles ?

2. What is the meaning of the following : Middle Ages ; manor ; villein ; holiday ; "Catholic" ; Pope ; Holy Roman Empire ; gild ; journeyman ; apprentice ; Christendom ?

3. Write a short composition on one of the following subjects :

- (a) Village life in the Middle Ages.
- (b) Town life in the Middle Ages.
- (c) Trade in the Middle Ages.
- (d) The Church in the Middle Ages.
- (e) The differences between the Middle Ages and modern times.

CHAPTER ONE

THE PASSING OF THE MIDDLE AGES : RENAISSANCE AND REFORMATION IN EUROPE

New Books. Have you ever stopped to think how many of the things with which you are familiar began somewhere about the year 1500 ? Take, for instance, this book which you are reading now : it is printed, as all books have been since then. But in fourteen-hundred all books were copied out by hand ; whereas in fifteen-hundred nearly all books were printed. Who invented printing no one quite knows—perhaps the German *Gutenberg*, who lived in the city of Mainz about the middle of the fifteenth century. In England, as we all know, it was *Caxton* who introduced printing, when he set up his press at Westminster in the year 1476.

New Schools and New Lessons. Then, what about your school ? If you are at an old "grammar school," quite probably it was founded some time in the sixteenth century. These old schools were called grammar schools because they set out to teach not

*(Photo : Mansell)*

Printing in the sixteenth century

On the left, compositors are setting up type ; in the background, type is being straightened out ; on the right is the printing press.

only the Latin language, which all schools had taught during the Middle Ages, but the newly-popular Greek grammar, which had only just come into fashion. The learned men of Europe had just remembered that some of the best books in the world are written in Greek, and they decided to learn and to teach Greek in order that these books could be read more widely.

New Editions of the Bible. Some of these books were the sort which are read merely for pleasure—like the plays and poems and histories for which the ancient Greeks are famous. Some of them were

scientific, containing the teachings of men such as Euclid and Pythagoras and Archimedes. But the most frequently read of all books written in Greek was the New Testament. At the end of the Middle Ages men were beginning to feel that they could only understand the Scriptures properly if they read them in the languages in which they were originally written. So the study of Greek (for the New Testament) and Hebrew (for the Old Testament) became more and more popular. In 1516 the Dutch scholar *Erasmus*, who was professor of Greek at Cambridge, brought out a new edition of the New Testament in Greek as near to the original as he could possibly make it.

Other scholars (such as the English friends of Erasmus, *Colet*¹ and *More*, and many foreigners as well) carried out other studies about the Bible and about the teachings of the Church; and many of them decided that some of the Church's teachings were mistaken. Some (including Erasmus and Colet and More) stayed in the Catholic Church and tried to reform its teachings from within. But many others decided that the best thing was to leave the Church. These men led the movement which we know as the *Reformation*, and founded new Churches, called *Protestant* because some of them "protested" about the way they were being treated by Catholics.

The Reformation: Luther. This Reformation was set going in Germany by *Martin Luther*. Luther was a monk, and a professor at Wittenberg University, and his studies had led him to believe that men could be good Christians without belonging to the Roman

¹ Colet founded St. Paul's School in 1509.

Church, and that the Pope had no right to be the head of the whole Church. Above all, Luther believed that every man should decide for himself what was right and what was wrong ; and to help his own countrymen to do this, he translated the Bible into German. Many Catholics, on the other hand, thought it was dangerous to let uneducated people decide for themselves in this way, and preferred instead that the Church should fix doctrines for all good Catholics to believe.

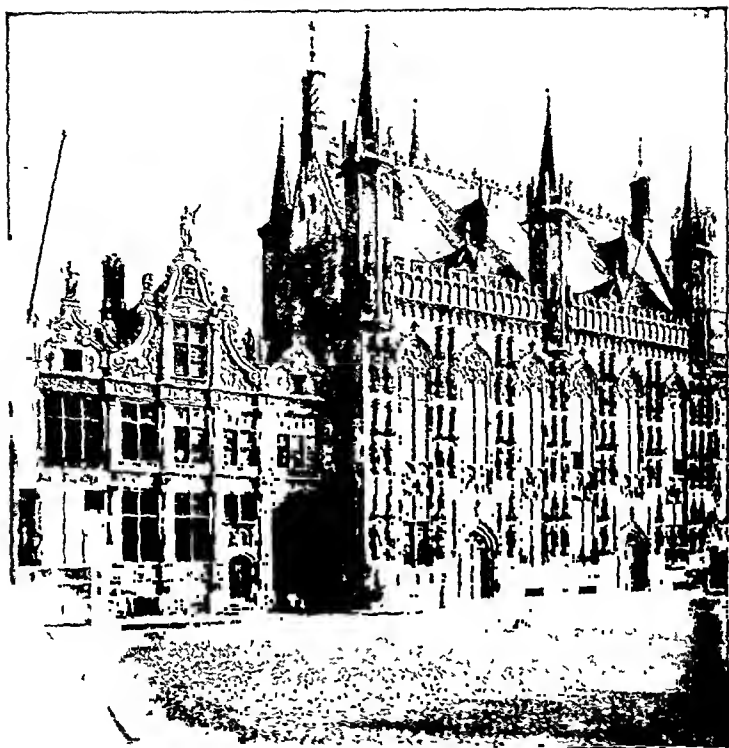
At first Luther was one of those who wanted the Church to reform itself. But he found that there were far too many people who were willing to oppose him. Of course there was the Pope ; besides him there was the Holy Roman Emperor, *Charles V* (1519-1556), who was afraid that if Luther upset the Roman Church, others would upset the Holy Roman Empire ; and there were rich and powerful Catholics all over Europe who were determined to put a stop to Luther's teachings.

Luckily for Luther, there were other rich and powerful princes who were willing to help him. Most of these were German princes who wanted Germany to stay as it was, split up into hundreds of states, little and big. As long as Germany remained like this, the greater princes could rule as they wished in their own lands ; so they wanted to keep the Emperor from being a strong ruler of all Germany, and therefore they helped Luther against the Pope and the Emperor. By the time of Luther's death (1546) many states in Germany had turned "Protestant," and the new movement was spreading into other parts of Europe as well.

New Churches ; Calvin and the Reformation. While Luther was turning so much of Germany against the Catholic Church, a Frenchman, *John Calvin*, was doing the same thing in France and Switzerland. In Switzerland, where there was no king and no princes to interfere, Calvin actually set up a church of his own at Geneva, and turned the city of Geneva into a sort of church republic, ruled by himself and his followers. Before long Calvin's ideas spread in France as well, and from the French to their friends the Scots ; so that before Calvin died (in 1564) very many indeed of the people of Switzerland, France, and Scotland belonged to Calvin's new church.

The Presbyterian Church. Calvin's church was called "*Presbyterian*"—from a Greek word (*presbyter*) meaning an "elder." This Presbyterian Church was as different from the Lutheran Church of Germany as Luther's church was different from the Church of Rome. Luther's church continued to be governed, like the Roman Church, by bishops, each of whom looked after a "diocese." But Calvin abolished bishops altogether, because he thought that bishops and kings helped each other to rule unfairly. So the Presbyterian Church was ruled, as it still is, not by bishops, who were really princes, but by *Elders*, elected by the members of the Church. The congregation of each church looks after its own affairs and chooses its own minister ; and the Elders elect assemblies which settle the affairs of the Presbyterian Church as a whole.

New Arts. This reformation in matters of religion was perhaps the most important change which took



(Photo : E.N.A.)

Gothic and Renaissance buildings in Bruges

On the right is the *Gothic* Town Hall (built in the fourteenth century) ; on the left is the *Renaissance* Record Office (built in the sixteenth century).

What typical features of (a) Gothic architecture, (b) Renaissance architecture, can you see in these two buildings?

place in Europe during the sixteenth century ; but there were many other changes as well. Besides new schools and books and new churches, so many new things were introduced at this time that the whole

change in Europe is often called the *Renaissance*, or "rebirth." It was really a *rebirth*, because many of the "new" things were not new at all, but only old things which had been forgotten during the Middle Ages. In fact, it is usually considered that the period which we call the "Middle Ages" came to an end at this time, because so many things which had been fashionable before the Middle Ages, in Greek and Roman times, were brought in again in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.

We have already seen how Greek and Roman books and ideas were becoming popular again. Besides this, the people of Europe now began to imitate the ancient Greeks and Romans in many other ways. They gave up Gothic architecture and built their houses and churches in old Roman and Greek styles; and this new fashion of building is always known as the *Renaissance style*, because it is a revival of the "classical" styles of ancient Greece and Rome. Other arts too, like painting and sculpture, changed very much from what had been fashionable in the Middle Ages, and men such as *Michelangelo* (1475-1564) and *Leonardo da Vinci* (1452-1519), who led the way in this, still count among the world's greatest artists.

New Sciences. There were "modern" scientists, too, as well as "modern" artists. Leonardo da Vinci himself, though he is most famous as a painter, made many scientific experiments, and even tried his hand at an aeroplane. Others followed his example, and some of them were very successful. Most of these scientists concerned themselves with the movements of the stars and planets, and it was the astronomer

Copernicus who proved definitely that the sun is more important than the earth, and that it does not travel round the earth once every twenty-four hours in order to cause night and day. *Copernicus* lived from 1473 till 1543, and other scientists followed in his footsteps during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries—especially the Italian *Galileo* and the Englishman *Isaac Newton*, both of whom helped to show how the law of gravity works.

New Worlds. It was not until the year 1727 that *Newton* died—the Renaissance lasted as long as that. More than a century before this, other discoverers had been finding out new things in other ways. Most important of all, they had discovered what we always call the “New World”—America. It was back in the fifteenth century that these discoveries were begun—most of them by the Portuguese prince *Henry*, who, because of the encouragement he gave and the money he spent on exploration, is known as *Henry the Navigator*. He commissioned Portuguese seamen to try to find a way round Africa to India and the Eastern lands where trade was most profitable, and two of them succeeded. In 1488 *Bartholomew Diaz* reached the southernmost point of Africa, which was called the “Cape of Good Hope”; and in 1497–1498 the “good hope” of reaching India by that route was fulfilled by *Vasco da Gama*. Before long this brought about another great difference between the times which we call the Middle Ages and those we call “Modern Times.” In the Middle Ages very many European sailors and merchants made their living in the Mediterranean Sea; the chief ports of Europe were there, and from these ports

caravans went inland to trade. But the discovery of an all-sea route to India enabled the merchants of Europe to manage without the long and dangerous land journeys through Asia ; and then, when in 1492 Columbus discovered America, there was a whole "New World" for them to explore and develop for their trade. Thirty years later an expedition under the Portuguese *Magellan* was the first ever to sail right round the world (1519-1522), though *Magellan* himself died on the way.

It is because of all the changes about which we have read in this chapter that we think of the Middle Ages as having ended about the beginning of the sixteenth century, and that we call all the centuries since then "Modern Times."

Books to read :

NOVELS

Mary Johnstone : ADMIRAL OF THE OCEAN SEA (*Butterworth*). L. A. Kent : HE WENT WITH VASCO DA GAMA (*Harrap*). Gordon Stables : WESTWARD WITH COLUMBUS (*Blackie*). THE IMAGINARY EYE-WITNESS (*Longmans*).

GENERAL

D. M. Stuart : THE BOY THROUGH THE AGES. (*Harrap*). THE GIRL THROUGH THE AGES (*Harrap*). E. and R. Power : BOYS AND GIRLS OF HISTORY (*C.U.P.*) Books I and II. MORE BOYS AND GIRLS OF HISTORY (*C.U.P.*) Book I. D. M. Gill : GREAT MEN OF HISTORY (*Harrap*). L. Lewis : LEONARDO THE INVENTOR (*Nelson*). G. E. Mitton : COLUMBUS (*Black*). Sir W. Orpen : THE OUTLINE OF ART. G. H. Reed : A BOOK OF ARCHITECTURE (*Black*). Estelle Ross : MARTIN LUTHER (*Harrap*). Scott and Mitton : VASCO DA GAMA (*Black*). COLUMBUS (*Black*). A. W. Seers : THE STORY OF EARLY ENGLISH TRAVEL AND DISCOVERY (*Harrap*). CHILDREN'S ENCYCLOPEDIA (8 vol. edition), pages 37-40, 777-9, 3356-8, 3567-74 ; (10 vol. edition), pages 772-7, 1016-21, 1511-18, 3757-60. THE BOOK OF KNOWLEDGE, pages 205-658, 716, 921, 966, 1532, 1832-4, 2131, 2264-5, 2285-6, 2395-6, 2474, 2732-7, 2978-9, 3042, 3049-50, 3058-60, 3221, 3680, 3838.

SOURCE READING :

Martin Luther and the Pope

This is part of a popular ballad, written about the year 1550. It is a dialogue, in which Luther and the Pope are supposed to be arguing with one another.

Doctor Martin Luther :

Thou anti-Christ, with thy three crowns,
 Hast usurped king's powers,
 As having power over realms and towns,
 Whom thou oughtest to serve all hours ;
 Thou thinkest by thy juggling colours
 Thou may'st likewise God's word oppress ;
 As do deceitful fowlers,
 When they their nets craftily dress.

The Pope :

As for scripture, I am above it ;
 Am I not God's high vicar ?
 Should I be bound to follow it,
 As the carpenter his rule ?
 Nay, nay, heretics ye are,
 That will not obey my authority.
 With this sword I will declare
 That ye shall all accursed be.¹

¹ From ENGLISH HISTORY IN CONTEMPORARY POETRY, No. III (The Historical Association).

Exercises on the Source Reading

1. What is the meaning of the following : anti-Christ ; vicar ; heretic ?
2. What does Luther mean by saying (a) that the Pope has " usurped king's powers " and (b) that the Pope thinks he may " God's word oppress " ?
3. Put the Pope's answer to Luther into your own words.
4. Can you find anything in the Pope's answer which shows that this poem was written by a Protestant, and not by a Catholic ?



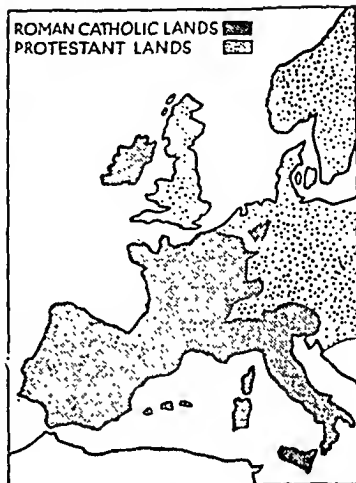
Martin Luther

(Photo : Mansell)

The Memorial at Worms, in Germany.
Around him are other famous Church reformers. Luther points to the Bible, and says : " On this I take my stand : I cannot do otherwise. God help me. Amen."



1500.



1600.

The spread of the Protestant religion in Europe during the Reformation

What were the names of the chief (a) Roman Catholic countries, (b) Protestant countries, in 1600?

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER ONE

Begin a TIME CHART for the years 1450 to 1600; divide it into two columns, heading the first "Europe" and the second "Britain"; then put in the appropriate column, at the proper date, the following: The Emperor Charles V; Luther; Calvin; Copernicus; Michelangelo; Leonardo da Vinci; Bartholomew Diaz; Vasco da Gama; Magellan; Caxton; the foundation of Saint Paul's School; the foundation of your own School, if it will go into the chart.

(Keep this Chart for use after reading the next chapters.)

Questions

A

1. What do you know about the following: Gutenberg; Erasmus; Colet; More; Charles V; Luther; Calvin; Michelangelo; Leonardo da Vinci; Copernicus; Diaz; da Gama; Magellan?

2. What is the meaning of each of the following ; Renaissance ; Reformation ; grammar school ; Protestant ; Presbyterian ; Renaissance style ?

3. Explain how the Renaissance was a " rebirth " in the following things : learning ; religion ; various arts and sciences ; knowledge of the world.

4. What religious changes do we include under the name " Reformation " ?

5. Write an account of the chief voyages of discovery in the half century from 1480 to 1530.

B

6. In what ways was Calvin's work (a) like, (b) unlike Luther's ?

7. Draw a map showing the new lands discovered between 1450 and 1600.

8. Make a drawing of any building in the " Renaissance " style which you have seen.

CHAPTER TWO

CHARLES THE FIFTH : THE EMPEROR WHO TRIED TO PUT THE CLOCK BACK

The Hapsburgs. While Europe was being turned from medieval to modern by the changes about which we read in the last chapter, there was one man who was trying to put the clock back. This was the Emperor Charles V, who lived from 1500 till 1558. Because he was the most powerful man in all Europe, he nearly succeeded in doing what he wanted.

What Charles was determined to do was to make the Holy Roman Empire as great as the old Roman Empire had been—as great as Charlemagne meant it to be when he was crowned the first Holy Roman Emperor in the year 800. Many other emperors before Charles V had tried to do this and had failed ;

but in some ways Charles was more fortunate than any of them and more likely to succeed. For one thing, he was one of the great German family of *Hapsburg*; all the emperors since 1438 had been Hapsburgs, and everybody in Europe knew that the Hapsburgs were among the cleverest statesmen alive.

Marriages of the Hapsburgs. During the last generation or so they had been cleverer than ever. Charles's grandfather *Maximilian I* (he was Holy Roman Emperor from 1493 till 1519) had married Mary, the daughter of Duke Charles the Bold of Burgundy; and so their son, Philip, was heir to many of the most important lands in Europe. His father Maximilian was ruler of Austria and other lands near it. His mother was heiress to all the possessions of Charles the Bold along the River Rhine and towards the North Sea. This alone would have made Philip one of the greatest landowners in all Europe. But then Philip in his turn married another wealthy heiress—Joanna the daughter of *Ferdinand* and *Isabella*, the King and Queen of Spain; and so their son inherited not only the Austrian lands of the Hapsburgs and the Burgundian lands of Charles the Bold but also Spain, and with Spain all the south of Italy and Sicily, as well as all the lands which famous Spanish explorers were discovering in America. Charles V was heir to all this. Then, when his last grandparent (Maximilian) died in 1519, Charles was elected Holy Roman Emperor to succeed him.

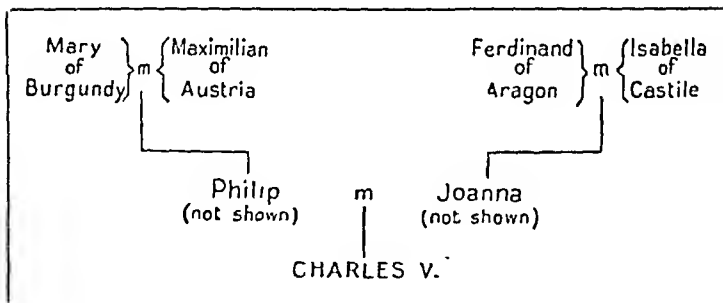
Back to the Roman Empire? No wonder it seemed to Charles that he was as great an emperor as any of the rulers of the ancient Roman Empire; no



(Photo : Handel)

Charles V and his Grandparents (a chimney piece at Bruges, carved for Charles V in 1529)

Charles is in the middle; at the sides are his grandparents in the order shown below. What did Charles inherit from each of them?



wonder he thought that he could do what other Holy Roman Emperors had failed to do—make himself really ruler of all Europe. All through the Middle Ages men had longed for such an Emperor—one who

V-V 'm < k

ko

5084)

would revive the glories of the Roman Empire and rule all Europe in peace. But one thing Charles failed to realise—that the Middle Ages were coming to an end. Medieval ideas were going out of fashion. And among other things, men everywhere were becoming patriotic—more interested in their own countries than in Europe as a whole.

So Charles found that there were people everywhere ready to thwart his great scheme for a real Holy Roman Empire keeping all Europe in peace. For one thing, the Protestants, whom Luther had stirred up in Germany, disliked the idea of the Holy Roman Empire, because the Holy Roman Empire had always been supposed to help the Roman Catholic Church to keep all Europe Catholic. Besides, some of the other great landowners in Germany did not want a strong emperor, who would interfere with their rule in their own lands. So the Protestants were helped against Charles by some powerful German princes, who made things more difficult by becoming Protestants themselves.

Charles V and Francis I. But Charles had a much more dangerous enemy abroad than in his own empire. This was *Francis I*, who was king of France from 1515 till 1547. If you look at the map of Charles's empire you will see that his lands seemed to be hemming in France on all sides, except towards the sea. Francis was afraid that Charles would become strong enough to beat France in war, and perhaps take from it so much land that it would cease to be the most important country in Europe. It really amounted to this—that Francis wanted to remain the strongest



Europe in the days of Charles V.

What was the Holy Roman Empire? Why was each of the places in small print important?

ruler in Europe, and Charles wanted to oust him from that position. So for the rest of Charles's reign there was war after war between Charles and the kings of France. In one battle (at *Pavia*, in 1525) Francis I of France was even taken prisoner by Charles ; but the fortunes of war soon changed again in favour of the French.

France and the Enemies of Charles. Although France was a Catholic country, the French kings did not mind joining with Charles's Protestant enemies in Germany. France helped the Lutherans (because, besides hindering Charles, this kept Germany from becoming a single united country strong enough to be a rival to France) ; and in return the Lutherans helped France, even to the extent of allowing France (in the year 1552) to take the three great and important fortresses of *Metz*, *Toul*, and *Verdun* on the frontiers of France and Germany. These fortresses are three of the chief cities of *Lorraine*—that district about which French and Germans have been quarrelling and fighting for over a thousand years.

There were other enemies of Charles whom the French helped against him. All the time that Charles was trying to make himself supreme ruler in western Europe, the eastern frontiers of his Austrian lands were being harrassed by Turkish armies, which advanced up the valley of the River Danube. At this time Turkey was being ruled by one of its greatest sultans, *Suleiman the Magnificent*, whose reign lasted from 1520 till 1566. Suleiman wanted to make the Turks as much masters in Europe as they were already in Asia ; and as they were not Christians but Muslims, of course it was the duty of the

Holy Roman Emperor to try to stop them. Anyway, as the Holy Roman Emperor was Charles and as most of the attacks of the Turks were made against Charles's lands on the Danube, he was really anxious to fight back at the Turks. But he did expect the other Christian kings in Europe not to hinder him ; and in this he was disappointed, for Francis I cheerfully helped the Turks against Charles, the most important Christian ruler in Europe.

End of the Empire of Charles the Fifth. At last Charles was worn out by these worries in all parts of his vast dominions, and he decided to abandon the struggle. In 1556 he abdicated, after being ruler of Spain (and all its possessions) for forty years, and ruler of all the Hapsburg lands, as well as Holy Roman Emperor, for thirty-seven years. His great possessions were divided again, and they have never since been reunited. Spain and America and the Burgundian lands on the North Sea (which were known as the *Netherlands*) went to Charles's son Philip—the famous *Philip II* of Spain. Charles's brother Ferdinand became Holy Roman Emperor and ruler of Charles's lands in the east and south of Europe. In 1559 they both made peace with France, and so ended the long-drawn-out war. But for the future the Hapsburgs and their possessions were divided into two—those of Spain and those of Austria. More important still, Charles's dream of a Holy Roman Empire of all Europe was shattered for ever.

England : Wolsey and Henry VIII. England had played a small part in this great struggle between France and the Hapsburgs. The two sides were so

evenly matched that each of them wanted England as an ally. As it happened, England at this time was being ruled by two great statesmen. One was *Cardinal Wolsey*, who was the chief minister of the English king *Henry VIII* from soon after the reign began in 1509 till a little before Wolsey's death in 1530; and the other was *Henry VIII* himself (1509-1547), who took over the real rule of his kingdom before Wolsey died. Both Wolsey and Henry knew how valuable the alliance of England would be to either Charles V or Francis I; and they knew that the anxiety of Charles and Francis for the English alliance made England seem more important in Europe than she really was. It is even thought that for a time Wolsey tried to keep what is called a *Balance of Power*, by always siding with whichever looked like losing, so that neither France nor Charles should become strong enough to lord it over other countries, and so that England should become more important in proportion.

But whether this was so or not, both Wolsey and Henry VIII soon found themselves occupied with troubles of their own, which kept them from taking much more part in the long war between France and the Hapsburgs on the continent of Europe. We will read about these English affairs in the next chapter.

Books to read:

NOVELS

D. Alcock: *THE SPANISH BROTHERS* (*Nelson*).

G. Hollis: *THE BLESSED SANDS* (*S.P.C.K.*).

GENERAL

T. M. Ragg: *THE EMPEROR CHARLES V AND THE RISE OF MODERN EUROPE* (*Putnam*). *CHILDREN'S ENCYCLOPEDIA* (8 vol. edition), pages

2379-80, 2527, 2706 ; (10 vol. edition), pages 4295-6. THE BOOK OF KNOWLEDGE, pages 792-4, 1346, 1495, 1998, 2026, 3049-51.

SOURCE READING :

The Battle of Pavia

A letter from Prince Ferdinand of Austria (the brother of the Emperor Charles V—he became Emperor himself in 1556) to King Henry VIII of England, sending him the earliest possible news of the battle.

Most Serene Lord Prince and King, and my most dear Uncle :

Greetings and regards.

I am writing to inform your Serene Highness that on the 24th day of this month (at the 18th hour by the Italian reckoning ¹), at Saint Angelo near Pavia, there was a battle between the armies of His Majesty the Emperor (my dear brother) and the French King. By the help and goodness of God victory fell to His Majesty the Emperor, and the King of France was captured and about fourteen thousand Frenchmen killed. Your Majesty will receive fuller particulars of this from the messenger who is now on his way to you with a present, but I thought it best to give your Majesty the good news myself. We give thanks to Almighty God.

We hope your Majesty is well.

Innsbrück : February 25th, 1525.

Exercises on the Source Reading

1. Why was there war at this time between the French and the Emperor? How long did the war last? Who had the best of it?
2. Why do you suppose that Ferdinand and Charles were so anxious to let Henry VIII of England know what had happened at Pavia?
3. What do you know about the writer of this letter? Can you find out why Ferdinand calls Henry VIII his "uncle"?

¹ The Italians then began their day at sunset.

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER II

Add to your double TIME CHART for the years 1450 to 1600 the dates of the following, putting each item into its proper column: The election of Charles V as Holy Roman Emperor; the abdication of Charles V; Francis I of France; the French gain of Metz, Toul, and Verdun; Suleiman the Magnificent; Henry VIII of England; the death of Wolsey.

Make a DIAGRAM showing the parents and grandparents of Charles V, and what he inherited from each of them.

Copy the MAP on page 28, colouring (or shading) differently: (a) the lands of Charles V; (b) the Holy Roman Empire; (c) France.

Questions

A

1. What do you know about the following: Maximilian I; Ferdinand and Isabella; Francis I; Pavia; Metz, Toul, and Verdun; Lorraine; Suleiman the Magnificent; Wolsey?

2. What is the meaning of the following: Holy Roman Empire; Hapsburg; Lutherans; Netherlands; Balance of Power?

3. Write an account of the reign of the Emperor Charles V.

4. Explain how the Hapsburgs increased their lands by prudent marriages.

5. Why was France at enmity with Charles V?

B

6. Explain what the Holy Roman Empire was meant to be and how it fell short of this.

7. Do you think it is fair to say that Charles V "tried to put the clock back"? Give reasons for your answer.

CHAPTER THREE

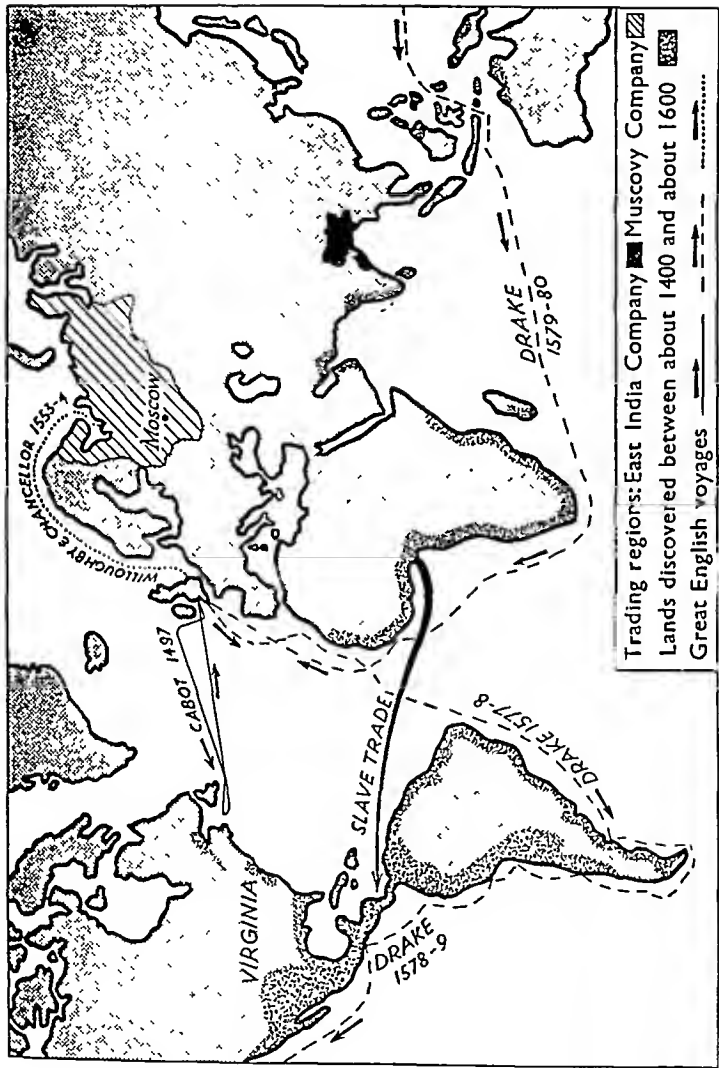
RENAISSANCE AND REFORMATION IN ENGLAND

The New Learning in England. England was as much stirred as other countries by the changes which we call the Renaissance and the Reformation. We have already seen that new books were printed by Caxton and others, and studied by people who followed

the example of scholars like Colet and More and their Dutch friend Erasmus. We have also read how new schools were set up to teach the New Learning ; and many new colleges were established at Oxford and Cambridge at the same time.

English Seamen and the New World. Englishmen also played their part in discovering the New World. It was the English king Henry VII who paid the expenses of John and Sebastian *Cabot* when they set out to explore America, and discovered Newfoundland in 1497. But not much more exploration was done by Englishmen till the second half of the sixteenth century. Then, at last, English sailors became the foremost in the world. In 1553 two explorers, *Willoughby* and *Chancellor*, worked their way round the north of Europe into Russia and started a trade between that almost unknown land and a new *Muscovy* ("Moscow") *Company* which English merchants established. Then there was the exploring and trading done by *Hawkins*, *Raleigh*, and *Drake*. All three of them wanted to find new lands for Englishmen to trade with. Hawkins led expeditions to Africa, where they collected bands of negroes to sell as slaves to the Spanish colonists in America ; and in those days nobody thought there was anything disgraceful in this. Raleigh actually started the first English colony—in the American land which he called *Virginia* after his unmarried Queen Elizabeth I. His venture was a failure, for all the colonists either perished or returned to England again ; but it was a beginning of the British Empire.

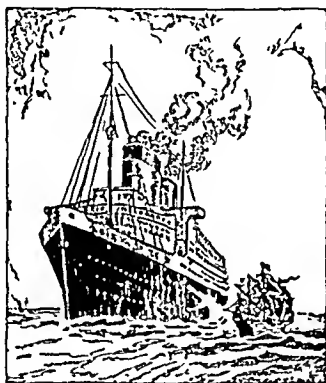
Drake. Raleigh's Virginian colony was planted in 1585. Years before that the greatest of English



Early English Exploration and Trade

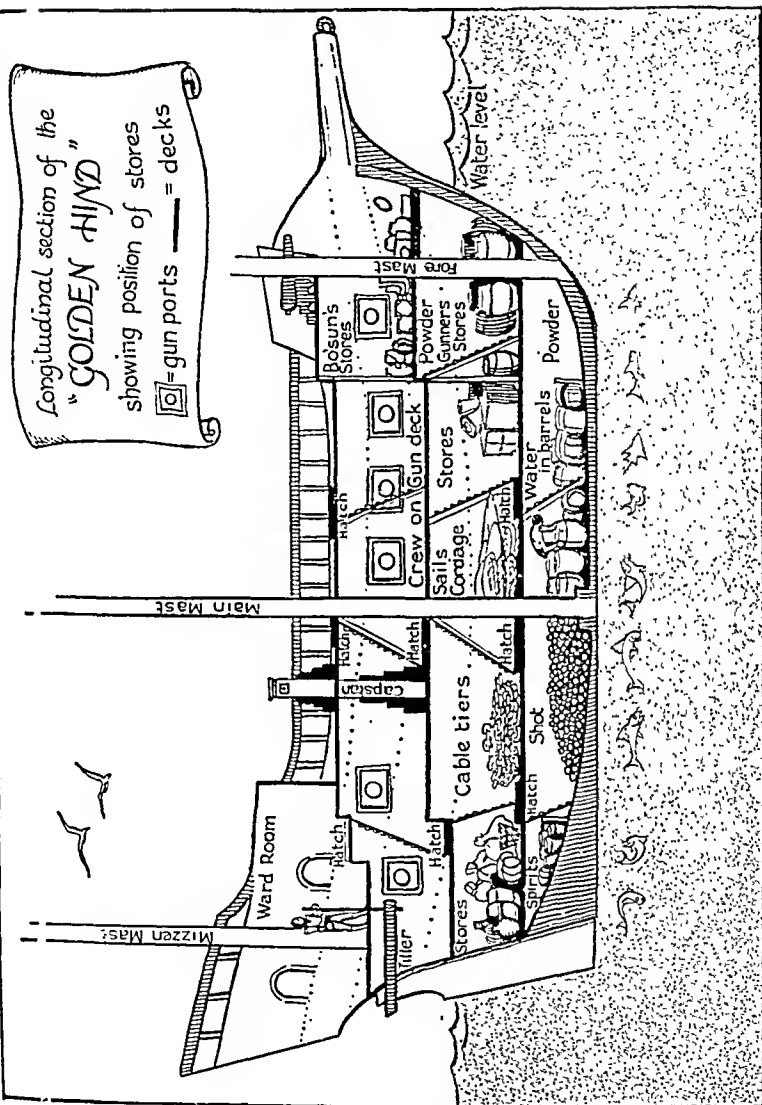
What (a) discoveries, (b) trading arrangements, were made on each of these voyages?

sailors had completed the greatest of English voyages in those times. This was Drake. He learned his seamanship under Hawkins, and became familiar with the Spanish waters of America and the ways of the Spaniards there. In 1577 he set out for the Spanish Main to trade and plunder; he sailed round Cape Horn into the Pacific Ocean—and he was not only the first Englishman to sail those seas, but he discovered,



Drake's *Golden Hind* and the *Queen Elizabeth* drawn on the same scale

as well, that there was a good way round South America without daring the perilous Straits of Magellan. Then, after trying in vain to discover a way round North America back into the Atlantic, he gave up this search for a *North-West Passage*—as many another commander was to give up the same search in future times. He decided to sail back home across the Pacific and round Africa. He reached home in 1580;

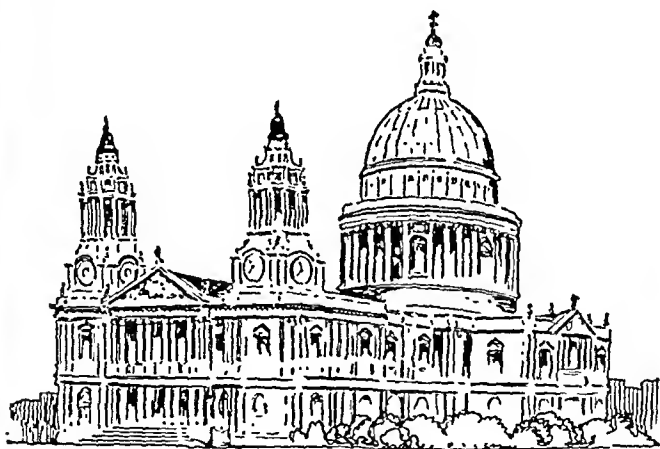
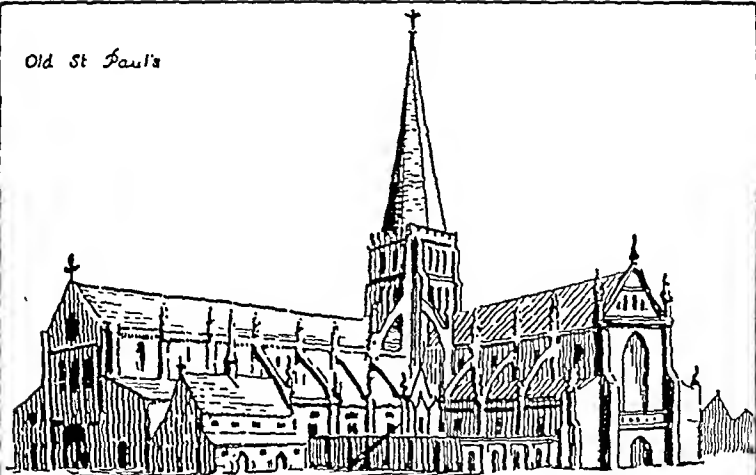


and so he was the first admiral ever to lead an expedition all round the world. While he was in the East he had made friends with some of the Eastern rulers. This helped to pave the way for English trade in those parts, and in 1600 the English *East India Company* was founded.

Renaissance Architecture in England. This was more than fifty years after Magellan, and it shows how long the Renaissance and its new ways were in being accepted by the English. It was the same with other Renaissance changes besides. Some of them took a very long time indeed to develop in England. For instance, we all know what St. Paul's Cathedral looks like ; it is built in that imitation of classical architecture which we call the " Renaissance Style " ; but it was finished not (like St. Peter's at Rome) in the sixteenth century, nor even in the seventeenth, but at the beginning of the eighteenth. Its architect, *Sir Christopher Wren*, did not die until 1723. So long did it take for the Renaissance style to become really popular in England.

Music. However, Renaissance architecture was one of the last of all Renaissance changes in England. A century before the time of Wren, two other arts were flourishing. One was music. Many of the tunes of the musical composers of the time of Queen Elizabeth I are still very popular indeed, and are very often sung and broadcast. Jolly part-songs were written by composers such as *Dowland*, *Morley*, *Weelkes*, and others; lovely church tunes were written by *Bryd*, *Tallis* (who wrote the tune to which we usually sing "Glory to thee, my God, this night"), and *John*

Old St Paul's



St Paul's Cathedral

Old St. Paul's and New St. Paul's

What kind of architecture is each of these, and how can you tell?



(Photo Mansell)

New musical instruments of Renaissance times (the *viol* and the *virginals*). Painted by *Vermeer* in the seventeenth century.

Bull (who may have composed "God Save the King").

Literature. But the greatest of all the arts in those lively Renaissance days in England in the later sixteenth century was literature. More great English books were written just before and just after the year 1600 than ever before. These books were of all kinds: novels, essays (the best of which were by Lord *Bacon*), poems by *Spenser*, *Marlowe*, and hundreds of others;

but, above all, some of the finest plays in the world—many of which are still played and read and broadcast regularly. Of course, the finest of all these plays were Shakespeare's. None of us need to be told by a history-book how fine his plays are. But it will help us to understand how quickly changes took place in Renaissance times if we remember that most people still think Shakespeare's plays the best in the English language, and yet—when Shakespeare's father was born not a single English play had yet been written.

There was one other book produced at that time which is still read even more than Shakespeare's plays—the Bible. Several translations of the Bible into English were made during the sixteenth century, but none of them were satisfactory. So at the beginning of the seventeenth century a number of the best Greek and Hebrew scholars got together and made a translation more accurate, and easier to understand, than earlier versions—though it kept their splendid language. This translation of 1611 (called the "*Authorised Version*" because it appeared with the King's permission) is still the favourite one, after more than three centuries.

The Reformation in England. The fact that the English people wanted a good translation of the Bible showed how far the religious change, which we call the Reformation, had gone in this country. In fact, whereas the English Renaissance came well after the European one, the English Reformation followed on the European one very soon. But it was very different from the European Reformation. For one thing, religious reformers (like Luther and Calvin) on

the continent brought in their changes against the wish of emperors and kings. In England, on the other hand, it was a king (Henry VIII) who started the Reformation. But Henry VIII's motives in doing so were (unlike Luther's and Calvin's) thoroughly selfish. He had tired of his wife, Catherine of Aragon, and wanted to divorce her; and when the Pope refused to permit this, Henry took up the Reformation slogan that the Pope was not the rightful head of the Church. Instead, Henry made himself head of the Church in England, and so began to pull England away from the Catholic Church ruled by the Pope. He also allowed all the monasteries in England to be destroyed, and took for himself and his friends most of their riches and fertile lands—though some went to the founding of new schools and colleges. But these seemingly "Protestant" acts of Henry did not mean that he was no longer a "Catholic." He believed that he was quarrelling only with the Pope—not with the Church: and although he refused to let the Pope rule the Church in England, he also refused to let the English give up their Catholic beliefs.

The Reformation under Edward VI. But when Henry died in 1547 all this was altered. His son, Edward VI (1547-1553), was only a young boy, and so the country was governed for him by two regents, called "Protectors." The first was the Duke of *Somerset* and the second Duke of *Northumberland*. Both of them helped on the Protestant Reformation in England; the new teachings of Luther were introduced into the English Church, and a new Prayer-Book, in English, took the place of the old Catholic

Missal. The belief in the Real Presence was given up, and the Protectors tried to make the people entirely Protestant. However, the young king died before they could succeed, and his sister Mary (1553-1558) brought back nearly all the old Catholic ways again.

The Elizabethan Settlement of Religion in England. But Mary too died after a very short reign, to make way for her sister Elizabeth. Elizabeth I reigned for nearly forty-five years (1558-1603). Hers was one of the most glorious reigns in English history, and one of its greatest glories was that Elizabeth settled the religious troubles to the satisfaction of most Englishmen.

On the continent of Europe, countries were going through terrible troubles while the rulers and people were trying to decide whether to be Catholic or Protestant. In England it was very different; and the Queen did as much as anybody to make it different. Elizabeth herself, and many of her advisers, did not really mind so much whether they and their country were Catholic or Protestant; but they did care whether their country suffered what other countries were suffering. So they devised a scheme of their own—and a Church of their own, which we always call the *Church of England*. It had a Prayer-Book of its own, with the words so arranged that both Catholics and Protestants could say them and mean them. To this day, church people do not all interpret the English Prayer-Book in the same way. To this day members of the Church of England can be, and call themselves, either Protestants or Catholics—or even both. Elizabeth ordered all clergymen to use her

this Elizabeth from her pretended queenship, and forbid all her subjects to obey her laws and commands.

Issued at Saint Peter's, at Rome, February 25th, A.D. 1569, in the fifth year since we became Pope.

Exercises on the Source Reading

1. What is the meaning of the following : excommunicate ; Catholic ; Apostolic ; bishop ?
2. What does the Pope mean by : (a) "Elizabeth, the *pretended* queen of England" ; (b) "the *lawful* queen, Mary of glorious memory" ; (c) "the *deserter*, Henry VIII" ; (d) the last sentence of the second paragraph ?
3. What was the duty of English Catholics after the Pope had issued this bull ?

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER III

To your TIME CHART for the years 1450 to 1600 add the dates of the following in the British column : Willoughby and Chancellor's voyage to "Muscovy" ; Drake's voyage round the world ; Shakespeare (1564-1616) ; the reign of Elizabeth I ; the foundation of the East Indian Company.

On a blank outline MAP of the world mark the routes of the voyages mentioned on pages 34-38.

Questions

A

1. What do you know about the following : Colet ; More ; Erasmus ; Willoughby and Chancellor ; Hawkins ; Raleigh ; Wren ; Spenser ; Marlowe ; Bacon ?
2. What is the meaning of each of the following : Renaissance ; Reformation ; Muscovy Company ; East India Company ; Authorised Version ; North-West Passage ?
3. Write a composition on one of the following : English seamen in Renaissance times ; English poetry in Renaissance times ; English music in Renaissance times.
4. How did Queen Elizabeth I and her advisers settle the differences between Catholics and Protestants in England ?

B

5. Read other books about Drake and write an account of his life.
6. Copy out or play or learn any well-known Elizabethan tunes.
7. Learn by heart any poetry by any poet mentioned on pages 40-41.

CHAPTER FOUR

PHILIP THE SECOND, CHAMPION OF THE
CATHOLIC CHURCH

ABOUT the middle of the sixteenth century it appeared as though more than half the countries of Europe were going to desert the Catholic Church. Spain and Italy seemed the only ones which were certain to remain Catholic: elsewhere—in England and Scotland, France, Germany, Switzerland—the new Protestant Churches appeared likely to win the day. Consequently, the leaders of the Catholic Church decided that something must be done. As it happened, at this time there were several very capable Popes—especially *Paul IV*, who was Pope from 1555 till 1559. Under him and his successors the Church pulled itself together, and before the end of the century the Catholic Church had won back again most of the lands which it had been afraid it might lose for ever.

The Counter-Reformation. There were several ways in which the Catholic Church brought about this *Counter-Reformation*, as it was called. From 1545 till 1563 the chief bishops and other leaders of the Church, from all over Europe, held a series of meetings at the city of Trent, on the borders of north Italy. At this *Council of Trent* the Catholic leaders decided definitely what teachings all good Catholics must believe and what rules all good Catholics must obey. From now onwards everyone knew what the Catholic Church expected of its members, and so it was easier for people to decide whether to remain Catholics or

not. In addition to this, the Popes even arranged for a list to be kept of all books, new and old, which good Catholics were forbidden to read. This prevented the spread of new teachings which might injure the Catholic Church ; and so useful did this list prove to be that it has been kept up till our own times.

The Jesuits. But probably it was the Jesuits who did more than anyone else to save the Catholic Church in the sixteenth century. It was *St. Ignatius Loyola* who started this band of Catholic missionaries. Loyola had been wounded as a young man, when he was a soldier in the Spanish army ; and while he was ill, he decided that what the Church needed was a band of soldiers to fight for it. So he established the *Society of Jesus*, whose members were known as *Jesuits*. They went all over Europe as missionaries—and even all over the world, for some of them worked in places like China and the new America, spreading the Church's teaching. Wherever they went they set up good schools—such good ones that people wanted to send their children to them ; and so it happened that many of the children became Catholics even if their parents were not. Besides this, the Jesuits tried to influence the great rulers of all countries. and many of them did persuade famous kings to remain or to become good Catholics.

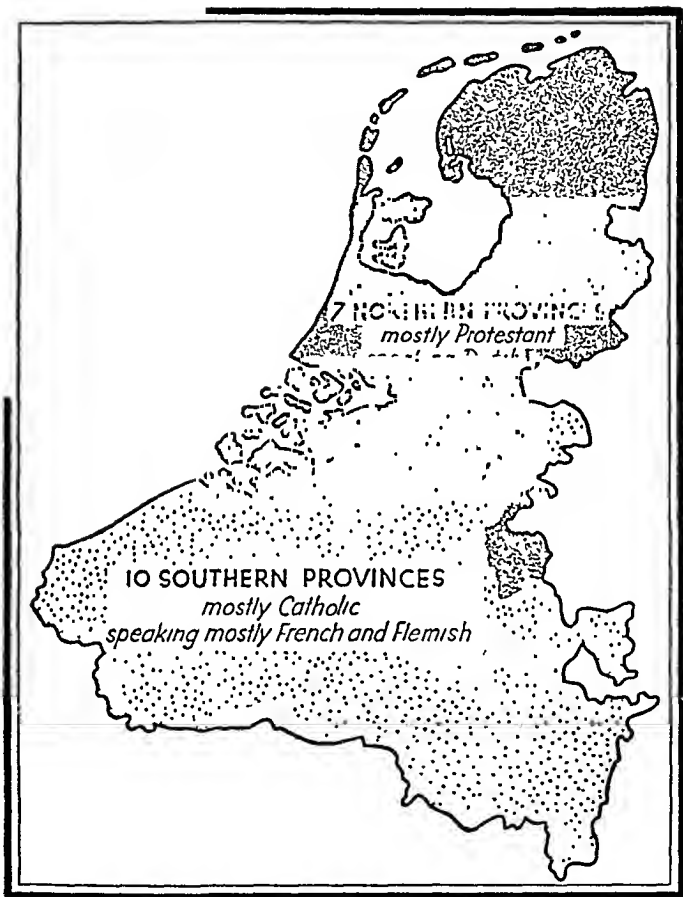
The Champion of the Church. One of the greatest of all these kings made himself the champion of the Church in its need. This was *Philip II* of Spain (1556–1598). He knew that he was the richest and most powerful king in Europe ; he was a keener Catholic than almost any other monarch alive ; and

so he resolved to do all he could to make Europe wholly Catholic once more.

The Terrible Turks. It happened that at this time the terrible armies of the Turks were harassing Europe again. They were being ruled by one of the most famous of their Sultans—*Suleiman the Magnificent* (1520–1566). Suleiman was trying to make the Turks masters of the Mediterranean Sea as well as of the valley of the Danube. Turkish pirates were worrying shipping all around the coasts of Spain ; and many of the Moors who still lived in Spain started to rebel. So Philip turned against the Turks and Moors everywhere. He issued laws to compel the Moors in Spain to become Catholics or else leave the country. He did all he could to root out the Turkish pirates in the Mediterranean. And in 1571 the Spanish navy beat the Turkish navy in the great battle of *Lepanto*, so that it was many years before Europe was in such great danger from the Turks again.

Another way in which Philip tried to help the Catholic Church was by marrying the English queen, Mary, in 1554. If Mary had lived longer, England might have remained a Catholic country. But when Elizabeth I became queen (in 1558), there was no more chance of this.

Catholics and Protestants in the Netherlands. It was in the Netherlands that Philip did most for the Church. The Netherlands were part of the lands which he had inherited from his father, the Emperor Charles V ; but they were not easy to govern. There were seventeen separate provinces in the Netherlands, and seven of them, in the north, were turning



The Netherlands in the time of Philip II

What became of (a) the seven northern provinces, (b) the ten southern provinces?

What are the modern names of these two districts?

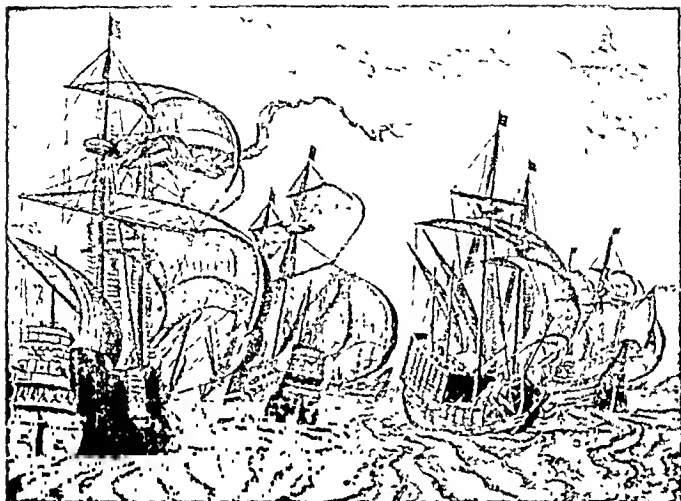
Protestant very rapidly. These seven northern provinces were different from the ten in the south in other ways, too. The people there spoke mostly Dutch, whereas in the south the people spoke French or Flemish ; and in the north they earned their living chiefly by fishing and trading by sea, while the southerners were mostly farmers or town merchants.

These differences made it very difficult to compel both the northern and the southern provinces to obey the same laws ; and it became worse when Philip, as champion of the Church, made new laws to compel the Protestants to become Catholics again. Before long they rebelled, under the leadership of the famous *William of Orange*,¹ who was one of the principal Dutch nobles. The rebellion lasted more than thirty years. In 1584 William of Orange was assassinated by a Catholic, but the struggle went on even longer than the reign of Philip. In the end the northern provinces threw off the rule of Spain altogether and became an independent country as the *United Provinces*, or *Nederland*, as they call it to-day.² The ten southern provinces remained loyal, and were still known as "the Spanish Netherlands."

Spain and England. Philip II had plenty of enemies who were very willing to make his troubles worse for him. One of these was France. The French and the Spaniards were the two greatest nations in Europe at this time, and their jealousy made each of them eager to outdo the other. But all through the

¹ Orange was the name of one of his estates in southern France.

² The English name, *Holland*, really belongs to only one of the seven provinces.



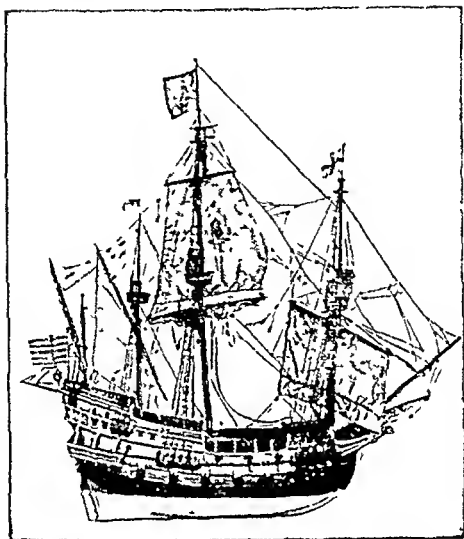
(Courtesy: Science Museum.)

Spanish Men-of-War at the time of the Armada

The high "castles" fore and aft were for boarding the enemy.

reign of Philip, France was busy with civil wars of her own between Protestants and Catholics, and so she was not able to use all her strength against Spain.

There was, however, another country which was able to do Spain a great deal of damage indeed. This was England. As we have seen, England had become Protestant under Elizabeth I; but Philip was still anxious to win her back to the Catholic Church if he could. The English, on the other hand, wanted to do as much harm as possible to the Catholic king and his Catholic subjects—especially as many of these subjects were rich merchants whose ships could be plundered at sea. Besides, many Spanish merchants



(Courtesy : Science Museum.)

An English Man-of-War at the time of the Armada

How can you tell from its appearance that it was built for different methods of fighting from the Spanish ships opposite ?

were glad to trade secretly with the English, against their own laws. So English buccaneers like Hawkins and Drake sold negroes and other things to Spaniards in America, or sailed the high seas as pirates, capturing or plundering the Spanish ships which brought rich cargoes of silver and other goods from the Spanish colonies.

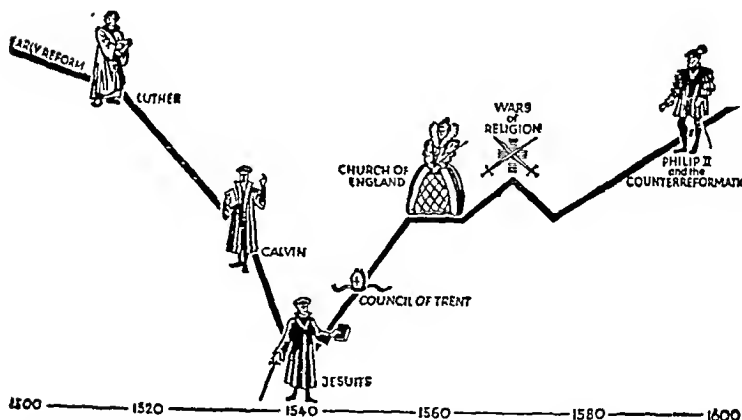
Mary Queen of Scots. Besides all this, Elizabeth gave very valuable help in all kinds of ways to the rebels against Philip in the Netherlands. She lent them money ; she let their ships use English harbours ; she even allowed English soldiers to fight

in battle for the Dutch against Philip. Yet for a long time Philip did not go to war openly against England. One reason for this was that Mary Queen of Scots was still alive. She was the nearest heir to the English throne after Elizabeth, and she was a good Catholic, so that if Philip beat England and deposed Elizabeth, he would have had to let Mary be queen of England. Mary was much more French than Scottish, and Philip was afraid that if she became English queen, England would help France against him. But in 1587 Elizabeth tired at last of Mary's plots against her, and Mary was executed.

The Spanish Armada. In the same year Philip got ready a great navy ("*Armada*" is the Spanish word) to attack England. Drake and his men bravely sailed right into Cadiz harbour and burned many of the Spanish ships, and this "singeing of the King of Spain's beard" put off the Armada for a year. But in the summer of 1588 it sailed, and all Europe thought England was doomed—all Europe, that is, except Drake and the men in the know. They had been practising their sailors for years in new ways of fighting at sea, and they knew their business thoroughly. Consequently, when the Spaniards arrived with their huge ships, filled with trained soldiers ready to board the smaller English vessels, they found that they were hardly able to use them. The English had more ships than the Spaniards, and, although they were not so well equipped, they were better manned, and they could manœuvre about much more easily than the huge Spanish vessels. Besides, the English were the best naval gunners in the world, thanks to the training

Drake and the other admirals had given them. What with these things and the south-west winds, which blew the Armada to England but prevented it from getting back easily to Spain, the English won one of the greatest naval victories in history.

The war went on for years after this, but it became clearer and clearer that the greatest days of Spain were over. Before Philip died France got a king who ended the French civil wars, and started France on her way to becoming the leader of the countries of Europe instead of Spain. In the next chapter we shall read how this came about.



Graph to illustrate the Fall and Rise of Roman Catholic Fortunes in the sixteenth century

How and why was each turning-point important?

Books to read :

NOVELS

D. Alcock : *THE SPANISH BROTHERS* (*Nelson*). Tom Bevan : *BEGGARS OF THE SEA* (*Nelson*). K. Carr : *THE WHITE HAWK* (*Chambers*). G. A. Henty : *BY ENGLAND'S AID* (*Blackie*) ; *BY PIKE AND DYKE* (*Blackie*) Charles Kingsley : *WESTWARD HO !*

GENERAL

E. and R. Power : *MORE BOYS AND GIRLS OF HISTORY*, Book I (*C.U.P.*). D. M. Gill : *GREAT MEN OF HISTORY* (*Harrap*). B. Marshall : *QUEEN ELIZABETH* (*Harrap*). *CHILDREN'S ENCYCLOPEDIA* (8 vol. edition), pages 908, 3351, 3460-62 ; (10 vol. edition), pages 5527-8. *THE BOOK OF KNOWLEDGE*, pages 225-6, 1132-3, 2258, 2836-7, 3757. A. B. Martin : *WILLIAM THE SILENT* (*Independent Press*).

*SOURCE READING :**Philip II and the United Netherlands*

Part of a speech made to the Netherlanders by William of Orange in 1576.

Your only hope is to send a joint and formal document to the King to tell him that it is your firm resolve to maintain the ancient rights of your country, and free it from the insupportable tyranny of the Spaniards, but to remain subject to the lawful sovereignty of His Majesty. . . . We need a confederation which shall work together to one end, cemented by some compact in solemn form, as the ancients did with oaths and sacrifices, and as our ancestors have often done now for three centuries past. Let the King see that this is no revolt stirred up by men of influence, as he fancies, but that it is the general voice of an entire people, of the commons as well as the chiefs, of prelates, abbots, monks, lords, gentlemen, citizens, and peasants, who, without difference of age, sex, or condition, call aloud with one voice for justice. Let him know that if he refuses it, you will throw yourselves into the arms of the ancient enemy of his house. A faggot bound together cannot be broken as easily as single sticks. You see what

we of Holland and Zeeland have been able to do in five years. We are here to help you. But rest assured that neither the princes of Germany, nor the gentlemen of France, nor the Queen of England, nor any potentates of Christendom, much as they may deplore your sufferings, will ever help you, unless you help yourselves.¹

Exercises on the Source Reading

1. Judging from the first sentence in this reading, do you think William of Orange wanted the Netherlands to get rid of the rule of Philip II of Spain? Give your reasons. What did he want them to get rid of?
2. What is there in this reading to show that William of Orange hoped that the Catholics as well as Protestants would join a confederation of the "United Netherlands"?
3. "The ancient enemy of his house"—what was the "house" to which Philip II belonged? Who was this "ancient enemy"?
4. Why were (a) "the princes of Germany"; (b) "the gentlemen of France"; (c) "the Queen of England," expected to help the Netherlands against Philip II?

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER IV

On your TIME CHART for the years 1450 to 1600, mark the following events at their proper places and in their proper column: the reign of Philip II of Spain; the Council of Trent; the battle of Lepanto; the death of William of Orange; the Spanish Armada.

Draw a MAP of the Netherlands in the sixteenth century, shading differently the seven northern (Protestant) provinces, and the ten southern (Catholic) provinces. What is the name of the latter nowadays?

Questions

A

1. What do you know about the following: Paul IV; Council of Trent; Loyola; Suleiman the Magnificent; Lepanto; William of Orange; Mary Queen of Scots?
2. What is the meaning of the following: Jesuit; United Provinces; Spanish Netherlands; Armada; "singeing the King of Spain's beard"?
3. Write an account of the reign of Philip II of Spain.

¹ From *William the Silent*, by Frederic Harrison.

4. What were the changes which we call the "Counter-Reformation"?
5. Explain how Holland ("Nederland") came into existence.
6. Why was the Spanish Armada beaten?

B

7. Read in other books about Sir Francis Drake and write an account of his life and adventures.
8. Draw a map showing the course followed by the Spanish Armada.

CHAPTER FIVE

CIVIL WARS IN FRANCE AND GERMANY

THE religious changes of Reformation times caused more trouble in France and Germany than anywhere else. Just as the ideas of Luther had spread in Germany, so the ideas of Calvin spread in France, and many thousands of Frenchmen became Calvinists. Many of the small towns, especially in the south-west of France, seemed as though they contained more Calvinists than Catholics.¹ This made the rulers of France afraid that the country might split into two parts again, or at least have a civil war which would do untold harm to France. As a matter of fact, it was the second of these things which happened. There were not one but eight civil wars, and they lasted for nearly forty years—from 1562 till 1598.

Mixed Motives. As usual in time of war, there was more than one thing to fight about. Calvinists were fighting Catholics because each side wanted to destroy the religion of the other. But, also, Calvinist nobles were fighting Catholic nobles because they were jealous of each other and each wanted to get control of the king and rule the country; and Calvinist merchants fought against Catholic nobles because the

¹ See the map on p. 64.

nobles had privileges which the merchants would have liked. And then Philip II of Spain joined in—partly because he was the Champion of the Catholic Church, but also because he wanted France to be too weak to be a rival of Spain. And Elizabeth I of England helped the Calvinists—partly because she was the most important Protestant monarch in Europe, but also because she wanted to seize every opportunity of hitting out at Spain.

The Politiques and Henry of Navarre. All wars are cruel, but religious wars are usually the cruellest of all; and these were no exception. In 1572 took place one of the worst things in the whole struggle—the terrible *Massacre of St. Bartholomew's day* (August 24th). In Paris *Coligny* and other Protestant leaders were murdered with their followers, and all over France thousands of Calvinists perished. Soon after this moderate people everywhere began to join together to stop the fighting. They called themselves *Politiques*, because they wanted to do what was "politic" or "sensible," even if it meant that both sides had to give up part of what they thought was right. Towards the end of the century the *Politiques* found a good leader in Prince *Henry of Navarre*, who was one of the greatest of French nobles and the nearest heir to the French throne. In 1589 the reigning king died, and most Frenchmen were ready to welcome Henry of Navarre as their ruler if only he had not been a Protestant. Henry hesitated for a long time; and then he decided that he must put the needs of France first. In 1593 he agreed to become a Catholic, and in a few more years the religious wars in France were brought to an end by the *Edict of Nantes* (1598).

The Edict of Nantes. The Edict of Nantes was typical of *Henry IV*, as Henry of Navarre was now

called. It tried to do justice to both Catholics and Protestants. Henry knew that there were far more Catholics than Protestants in France, and therefore he kept Catholicism as the state religion. But the edict gave the Calvinists the right to worship as they wished in many places, and they were even permitted to have castles in many of the towns where they were in a majority. This turned out to be dangerous later on ; but at the time both Catholics and Calvinists wanted peace from the civil war, and that was what their new king had given them.



The Knife-grinder

An etching by the 17th-century Flemish artist, Teniers.

Cardinal Richelieu and the Huguenots. In 1610 Henry IV was assassinated by a madman ; but not many years later France was being ruled by an even greater ruler—the famous *Cardinal Richelieu*. He was chief minister of Henry IV's son, King Louis XIII, from 1624 till he died one year before Louis, in 1642. During those eighteen years he set himself three great tasks. The first was to prevent the *Huguenots* (as the French Calvinists were called) from being a danger to the state and from being able to start a long civil war again. Richelieu even had to have a short civil war in order to do this ; but by 1629 he had defeated the Huguenots, in spite of their fortified towns ; and for the future they had to be content with freedom to worship in their own way, without owning things so dangerous to the king as forts and castles.

Cardinal Richelieu and the Nobles. Richelieu's second task was to prevent the nobles from being a danger to the state. Most of the nobles, as well as the Huguenots, had castles of their own, and they too might have started a civil war. Besides, many nobles regarded themselves as almost like small kings in their own provinces, and expected the people to obey them rather than the king of France. So Richelieu made laws forbidding them to have castles of their own or to settle their quarrels by fighting duels instead of relying on the king's law-courts. Of course the nobles were strong enough to resist this, and it took Richelieu and the king many years to defeat them. But at last Richelieu felt safe enough to take one further step with the nobles. In 1637 he put all the provinces under governors (called *intendants*) appointed by the

king, instead of leaving them under the rule of great nobles, as hitherto ; and thus the French nobles lost all right to take part in the government of the country.

Richelieu and the Enemies of France. By this time, too, Richelieu felt that he dared to begin his third great task—to make France the mightiest country in Europe. In the days of the French wars of religion, Spain had been the mistress of Europe, under Philip II. But Spain was now weaker, and Richelieu thought he had more to fear from that other Hapsburg family,



Raiding an Inn in the Thirty Years War

the rulers of Austria. So he tried to find some way of making France greater than Spain and Austria together.

The Thirty Years War. Fortunately for Richelieu, both Spain and Austria were already busy with a war—a war which was one of the worst Europe has ever had. For one thing, it lasted thirty years (from 1618 till 1648). But, besides this, during all that time bands of soldiers were marching and fighting in all parts of Germany, killing one another as well as farmers and

peasants who meant no harm to either, burning farms and villages and even cities, so that the people of Germany were far poorer for generations afterwards.

Foreigners in the Thirty Years War. Unfortunately for Germany, this war was not confined to Germans. It began as a quarrel between Catholics and Protestants in the kingdom of Bohemia, in Germany, but very soon the kings of other countries interfered. The king of Denmark interfered to help the Protestants, partly because he himself was a Lutheran Protestant, like most German Protestants; but also because he wanted to get more lands in Germany for himself. By 1629 the Hapsburg generals had defeated Denmark, and then a still greater foreign king joined in—one of the finest generals there have ever been.

Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden. This was *Gustavus Adolphus* of Sweden. He was one of a line of kings who, in the sixteenth century, had been making Sweden greater and greater; and now Gustavus was determined to make his country mistress of the Baltic Sea. He too was a Lutheran, and in 1630 he joined in the Thirty Years War to help the Lutherans of Germany. But he too wanted more land—as much of the Baltic coast as he could get. In two years of brilliant campaigning up and down Germany, north and south, he beat the armies of the German Catholics; and he might even have made himself master of Germany if he had not been killed at one of his greatest victories—the battle of *Lützen* in 1632. After his death the Protestants could not hope to do so well. But he did leave behind him another man to carry on his work, his Chancellor, *Oxenstierna*.

64 FRANCE, SWEDEN AND THE GERMAN WAR

France in the Thirty Years War. Neither Gustavus nor Oxenstierna could have carried on at all if they had not had help from France. France was Catholic and Richelieu was even a Cardinal ; but they did not mind helping the Protestants of Germany against the Austrian and other German Catholics who were France's enemies. So Richelieu saw to it that the Swedes were not short of money for their campaigns—



Europe in the time of the Thirty Years War

For what are Lützen and Westphalia famous ?

and in the long run it was France which gained most from the Swedish victories when peace was made at last.

The Peace of Westphalia. This horrible war dragged on for sixteen years after Gustavus was killed, and for six years after the death of Richelieu. But Richelieu's plans were followed by *Cardinal Mazarin*, who was chief minister of France after him, so that the peace when it came was very favourable to the French. It was made at conferences in two towns of the German district of Westphalia, and for that reason it is always known as the *Peace of Westphalia*. First of all, the peace settled the religious affairs of Germany. Every ruler in Germany (and there were hundreds of them, each governing a separate state, some huge, some quite tiny) was to decide whether his own land was to be Catholic or Protestant, and all his subjects were to abide by his decision. But the chief reason why the Peace of Westphalia is so important is that it handed over parts of Germany to France and Sweden. Sweden got two large slices of the Baltic coast of Germany; and France got most of *Alsace*, which has always been partly French and partly German, so that the French and the Germans have gone on quarrelling about it ever since.

It took another eleven years to make the king of Spain give up Spanish lands to France. But at last, in 1659, he made the *Treaty of the Pyrenees* and agreed that France should have *Artois* in the Spanish Netherlands, and the two Spanish provinces of Rousillon and Cerdagne, as well as the Spanish parts of Alsace.

You can see best from the map on page 85 what a difference these two treaties made to the size and

importance of France. She was now easily the greatest country in Europe ; and already she was being ruled by a boy who was to remain her king for seventy-two years (1643 to 1715). He was *Louis XIV*, and his reign was the most splendid in all the history of France. By the Treaty of the Pyrenees it was arranged that he should marry *Maria Theresa*, the eldest daughter of the Spanish king, so that France might even look forward to a day when a French prince should become king of both France and Spain. Europe was to suffer more than one serious war about this before very long.¹

Books to read :

NOVELS

D. Alcock : *THE KING'S SERVICE (R.T.S.)*. O. V. Caine : *THE COMING OF NAVARRE (Nisbet)*. G. A. Henty : *WON BY THE SWORD (Blackie)* ; *THE LION OF THE NORTH (Blackie)* ; *SAINT BARTHOLOMEW'S EVE (Blackie)*. Charlotte M. Yonge : *THE CHAPLET OF PEARLS (Macmillan)*.

GENERAL

L. H. Farmer : *THE BOYS' BOOK OF FAMOUS RULERS (Harrap)*. Mary Macgregor : *THE STORY OF FRANCE (Nelson)*. *CHILDREN'S ENCYCLOPEDIA* (8 vol. edition), pages 2198-2200, 2528, 2852 ; (10 vol. edition), pages 3920-22, 4296. *THE BOOK OF KNOWLEDGE*, pages 912, 1346, 1751, 1884-5, 3092, 3531-3.

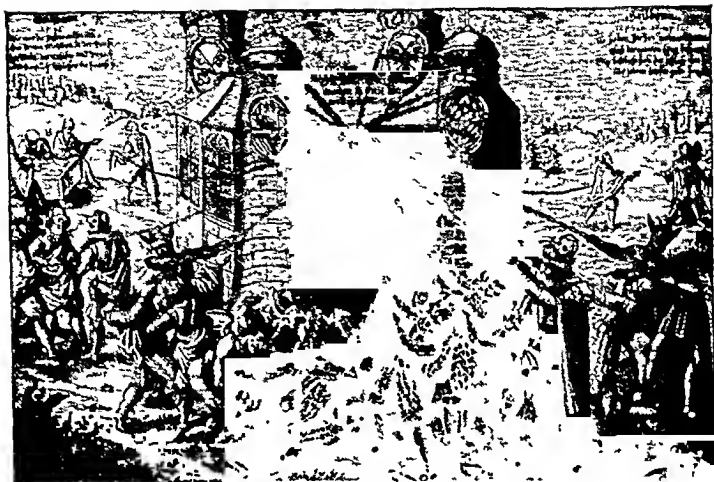
SOURCE READING :

Sweden in the Thirty Years War

Part of a speech which Gustavus Adolphus made to the Swedish Parliament in the year 1629.

Denmark is used up. The Papists are on the Baltic ; they have Rostock, Wismar, Stettin, Wolgast, Greifswald, and nearly all the other ports in their hands. Rügen is theirs, and from Rügen they continue to threaten Stralsund.

¹ For the reign of Louis XIV, see Chapter Seven.



Protestants attacking the Catholic Church. A seventeenth-century cartoon

Devils are helping the Protestant princes to pull down the four strong towers of the church. The two towers at the back are the Papacy (badge : the cross-keys of St. Peter), and Austria (badge : the double-eagle).

Their whole aim is to destroy Swedish commerce and soon to plant a foot on the southern shores of our Fatherland. Sweden is in danger from the power of Hapshurg. That is all, but it is enough. That power must be met, swiftly and strongly. The times are bad ; the danger is great. It is no time to ask whether the cost will not be far beyond what we can bear. The fight will be for parents, for wife and child, for house and home, for Fatherland and Faith.¹

¹ From *Gustavus Adolphus*, by C. R. L. Fletcher.

Exercises on the Source Reading

1. What does Gustavus Adolphus mean by saying : (a) "Denmark is used up" ; (b) "The fight will be for . . . Fatherland and Faith" ?
2. Who were the Hapsburgs, and why does Gustavus Adolphus say that Sweden is in danger from their power ?
3. Do you think the Hapsburgs would have agreed that Gustavus Adolphus really entered the Thirty Years War for the reasons he gives in this speech ?
4. Find out in a map all the places mentioned in this Reading.

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER V

1. On your TIME CHART for the years 1450 to 1600 mark in their proper places and columns the dates of the following : the French Religious Wars ; the Massacre of St. Bartholomew ; the Edict of Nantes ; the reign of Henry IV of France.
 2. Begin a TIME CHART for the seventeenth century ; divide it into three columns (headed "France," "Britain," and "Other Nations"), and enter the following in their proper places and columns : the rule of Richelieu ; the Thirty Years War ; the battle of Lutzen ; the Peace of Westphalia ; the Treaty of the Pyrenees ; the reign of Louis XIV.
- On a blank outline MAP of France shade the districts which were added to France at (a) the Peace of Westphalia ; (b) the Treaty of the Pyrenees. (You will need to add to this map later.)

Questions

A

1. What do you know about the following : Coligny ; the Massacre of St. Bartholomew ; Henry of Navarre ; the Edict of Nantes ; Gustavus Adolphus ; Oxenstierna ; Lutzen ; Mazarin ; Peace of Westphalia ; Treaty of the Pyrenees ; Alsace ; Maria Theresa ?
2. What is the meaning of the following : Calvinist ; Politique ; Huguenots ; intendants ?
3. What various matters were the French Religious Wars fought about ? How were these matters settled by the Edict of Nantes in 1598 ?
4. What were Richelieu's aims and how did he set about achieving them ?
5. What various matters was the Thirty Years War fought about ? What countries took part in it, and why ? What did (a) France, (b) Sweden, gain by the war ?

B

6. Do you think it is fair to describe the Thirty Years War as "the last of the wars of religion" ?
7. Read in other books about (a) Gustavus Adolphus, (b) Richelieu, and write accounts of their lives.

CHAPTER SIX

CIVIL WAR IN ENGLAND

A Scottish King of England. While the Thirty Years War was upsetting Germany, the people of England were going through troubles of their own. Their popular queen, Elizabeth, died in 1603, and a distant relative of hers came to the throne. This was James VI of Scotland, who now became James I of England (1603-1625). A new flag was invented¹ to show that England and Scotland were now united under one king ; but, as a matter of fact, the English still looked on all Scots as foreigners—even their new Scottish king, with whom they quarrelled regularly.

One thing they quarrelled about was the Thirty Years War. Most English members of Parliament were Protestants, and they wanted James I to fight against the Catholics in Germany. James had been brought up in Scotland as a Presbyterian, and you would have thought he would have been very glad to fight Catholics. But he was not. He believed that kings should be very powerful, and he also believed that most Protestants did not like having kings at all, whereas Catholics did. Of course, he was not willing to be a Catholic; but he did like the new Church of England established by Elizabeth I, and he knew that its bishops and clergy would uphold the kingship in England. He stuck to Elizabeth's Church because it was neither wholly Catholic nor wholly Protestant ; and he also made up his mind not to side with either

¹ The Union Jack, with the crosses of St. George and St. Andrew.

Protestants or Catholics in the Thirty Years War. Besides, he rather wanted to get an alliance with Spain ; and as Spain was not only Catholic, but the ancient enemy of the English, James's new subjects quarrelled with him about this too.

Parliament and the King's Money. It happened at this time that the English Parliament was trying to take more part in governing the kingdom, and it would not vote the king money with which he might rule in a way they did not like. If he could find enough money of his own, he could stop calling Parliaments, and England would be governed by a dictator-king ; but if he failed to manage without Parliament's grants of money, Parliament would become his master. So neither side felt like giving way to the other.

Charles I and the Petition of Right. Things were still worse when James's son, *Charles I* (1625-1649), became king. Charles began to make his subjects pay old-fashioned taxes and fines which had gone out of use ages ago—and then began using out-of-date punishments for people who would not pay his out-of-date demands. At last Parliament refused to grant Charles any money at all unless he agreed to make four promises :

1. Not to make his subjects pay any tax or other payment which had not been sanctioned by Parliament :
2. Not to punish those who refused, by
 - (i) Putting them in prison and keeping them there without a fair trial :

- (ii) Trying them by military courts and by *martial law* instead of in the ordinary courts and by the ordinary law :
- (iii) Billetting soldiers or sailors in their houses, and so really making them pay for the upkeep of these men.

Parliament sent a special petition to the king about these things in 1628: it is always known as the *Petition of Right* ; and although the king almost immediately broke his promise to grant this petition, and even ruled without Parliament at all for eleven years, from 1629 till 1640, many historians still think that the *Petition of Right* is one of the most important of all English laws, because it is still unlawful for any English government to do any of the things mentioned in the *Petition*.

Eleven Years without Parliament. During Charles's eleven years without a Parliament (the longest time England has ever been without Parliament since it first began) Charles was really a dictator. He had two great ministers to help him. One was the Archbishop of Canterbury, *William Laud* ; the other was *Thomas Wentworth*, who afterwards became *Earl of Strafford*. Laud wanted the Church of England to become more like the Roman Catholic Church in its services and ceremonies ; and Charles, whose wife was a Catholic French princess, agreed with him. So Laud introduced Catholic ways into the church services, and this annoyed many Englishmen, though it pleased many others. Then he introduced bishops and a church Prayer-book into the Presbyterian Church in

ROYALISTS AND

Scotland, and this annoyed almost every Scotsman without exception.

The Bishops Wars. The Scots were much more bitter than the English against the Catholics, and they were willing to fight to prevent Laud from bringing in his Catholic ways. And fight they did—a fight called the *Bishops Wars*, in 1639 and 1640. They had a general, *Alexander Leslie*, who had learned his trade in the Thirty Years War, and they easily beat the army of the English king. All the money Charles still had soon went in fighting these Scots, and there was no way of getting more except by calling Parliament and asking for it.

The Long Parliament. So Charles called, in 1640, the Parliament which was to prove his last. It lasted longer than the rest of Charles's reign, and so it is known as the *Long Parliament*. It would not grant the king the money he needed without asking him to make more and more humiliating promises (even a promise to let Parliament control the king's soldiers). Charles felt bound to refuse, and at last things reached such a state that there was nothing for it but to fight things out.

The Civil War. So began the great Civil War. It lasted, with intervals, from 1642 till 1648. At first the king looked like winning. He had on his side nearly all the richest people, and they rallied to him splendidly—often selling all or most of their possessions to help him. These men, too, were better fighters than most of the peaceful merchants and hard-worked peasants who made up the bulk of the army of the Parliament. But as the war went on the money of Charles's friends

ROUNDHEADS

began to give out, whereas the merchants on Parliament's side went on making money by their trade. Then Parliament found a general who managed to inspire the blunt *Roundheads* with a spirit as brave as that of the King's *Cavaliers*. This was *Oliver Cromwell*. He taught his humble soldiers to feel that they were fighting for God as well as for Parliament, and this made them willing to undergo much more severe drill and training. Cromwell began this with his own troops, and in 1644 they easily turned the battle of *Marston Moor*, in Yorkshire, into a Parliamentary victory. By the next year Cromwell's methods had been adopted by all the generals of Parliament, and in the last great battle of *Naseby* the king's army was scattered. This really ended the war. Some of Charles's followers, especially Scots, held out for several years more. But it was no use. The king was captured by the Parliamentarians, and at last, in January 1649, they tried him and had him executed.

Eleven Years without a King. For the next eleven years England was kingless: a republic—or *commonwealth*, as they called it then. How was the country to be governed? First of all they tried to let the House of Commons govern. But a House of Commons with four hundred and sixty members was too big to rule well, even through a Council of State. So at last they made Oliver Cromwell dictator, with the title of *Lord Protector*. For the next five years (1653 to 1658) the British Isles (Scotland and Ireland and Wales as well as England) were ruled by one man; and that man was not a king.

Cromwell : Protector and Dictator. At first Cromwell tried to rule as he had wanted Charles I to rule ; but he found that he could not. The times were too unsettled, and Cromwell had to be as despotie as ever Charles had been. Like Charles, he quarrelled with his Parliaments and at last dismissed them. He was as hard on men like Laud as Laud had been on men like Cromwell. He even ruled the country by martial law (as if he had never heard of the Petition of Right !) and divided England into districts each of which had a Major-General over it.

Cromwell : Protector and Patriot. All the same, England gained a great deal from Cromwell's rule. During the reign of Charles I no other country in Europe had taken much notice of England ; but England under Cromwell was respected everywhere. You will remember that at this time, though the Thirty Years War was over, France and Spain were still fighting ; and both France and Spain wanted the alliance of England now that Cromwell was making her strong. To Cromwell, Spain seemed more Catholic than France, though France was being governed by a Cardinal—Mazarin. Besides, there was more to conquer from Spain than from France. So Cromwell's England allied with France, and the two fought Spain together. Even before the alliance an English expedition to the West Indies had captured the island of Jamaica (in 1655), and had added it to the growing English Empire in America.¹

¹ Important English colonies already established were *Virginia* (in 1607-9), *New England* (by the Pilgrim Fathers from 1620 onwards), *Maryland* (by the Catholic Lord Baltimore), and others. In the next reign *Carolina* and *Pennsylvania* were founded, and *New York* was conquered from the Dutch.

The Revolution. But Cromwell died in 1658, and the English people, tired of dictatorship, longed for a peaceful kingship. They turned to the son of Charles I, who was living in Holland ; and in 1660 he returned to his father's throne as Charles II. For twenty-five years he managed to avoid too bitter a quarrel with his Parliaments, and when he died in 1685 he was really popular. Then for three years his brother (James II) tried to rule in defiance of Parliament, and so he had to abdicate and make way for his daughter, Mary, and her husband, William of Holland, to become joint king and queen in 1689. This change of monarchs brought with it other changes so important that it is known as the *English Revolution*. William and Mary had to agree to an Act of Parliament called the *Bill of Rights*, which forbade future English monarchs to rule as Charles I and James II had done. William set the fashion of ruling as his English ministers wished ; gradually the following monarchs did the same. And so, since the early eighteenth century, English rulers have been *constitutional* monarchs, ruling according to advice given them by their *cabinets*—cabinets chosen by a Parliament elected by the people.

Books to read :

NOVELS

B. Gilbert : JOHN OF THE FENS (*Milford*). E. E. Cowper : TRUE TO THE KING (*S.P.C.K.*). E. E. Crake : THE ROYALIST BROTHERS (*S.P.C.K.*). J. S. Fletcher : WHEN CHARLES I WAS KING (*Black*). THE IMAGINARY EYE-WITNESS (*Longmans*).

GENERAL

H. E. Marshall : THE STORY OF OLIVER CROMWELL (*Nelson*). P. Pakenham : CHARLES I (*Duckworth*). H. Withers : OLIVER CROMWELL (*R.T.S.*). SCENES OF STUART TIMES (*Oxford Press*). CHILDREN'S

and a thriving way—and yet as much for bravery may be given to him, in this action, as to a man. Honest men served you faithfully in this action. Sir, they are trusty; I beseech you, in the name of God, not to discourage them. I wish this action may beget thankfulness and humility in all that are concerned in it. He that ventures his life for the liberty of his country, I wish he trust God for the liberty of his conscience, and you for the liberty he fights for. In this rests, who is

Your most humble servant,

OLIVER CROMWELL.

Exercises on the Source Reading

1. Why is this letter written to the Speaker of the House of Commons?
2. What does Cromwell mean by (a) "being commanded by you to this service"; (b) "He that ventures his life for the liberty of his country, I wish he trust God for the liberty of his conscience, and you for the liberty he fights for"?
3. What does this letter show you about the character of Oliver Cromwell?
4. Why did the battle of Naseby decide the war?

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER VI

To your TIME CHART for the seventeenth century add the following in the British column: the dates of the foundation of British colonies; the reigns of James I, Charles I, Charles II, James II; the rule of Cromwell; the Civil War; the Revolution.

On a blank outline MAP of North America mark the British colonies founded or conquered there in the seventeenth century.

Questions

A

1. What do you know about the following: Petition of Right; Laud; Strafford; Alexander Leslie; the Long Parliament; Marston Moor; Naseby; Mazarin; Bill of Rights?
2. What is the meaning of the following: Union Jack; Martial law; Bishops Wars; Commonwealth; constitutional monarch; cabinet government?
3. What (a) religious matters, (b) other matters, did kings and parliaments quarrel about in the seventeenth century?
4. What sort of a ruler was Oliver Cromwell?
5. What foreign lands became English colonies in the seventeenth century?

B

6. Read about the Civil War in other books and write an account of it.

7. Read about Oliver Cromwell in other books and write an account of his life.

8. How is the government of England to-day affected by the struggle between kings and parliaments in the seventeenth century?

CHAPTER SEVEN

LOUIS THE FOURTEENTH, THE SUN KING
OF FRANCE

Every Inch a King. In the year after Charles II became king of England, Cardinal Mazarin died. He had been the real ruler of France for nineteen years—ever since the death of the great Cardinal Richelieu; and everyone wondered who was going to have his place. There was Fouquet, the Chief Intendant, who had charge of the country's finances, and at first he was expected to become the country's new ruler. But people had forgotten one important thing—that the young king, Louis XIV, was no longer a boy. He was now twenty-three, and to everybody's surprise he decided to do without a prime minister and to rule the kingdom for himself. In fact, he decided to be far more than a king to his country: he would make it the most glorious country in the world. All other countries should look up to France as their leader and superior, and should learn at last that France was the finest and most civilised country on earth.

All this Louis XIV resolved to do for France; and he would do it himself, without any prime minister to

overrule him. He called himself the "Sun King" (*le roi soleil*), as though he gave light and warmth and happiness to all his people ; and as he was the sun of France, so France should be the sun of all the world.

French Fashions. In all this Louis XIV succeeded. French fashions—in dress and buildings and books and amusements—were copied all over Europe. Louis's own court was the most splendid ever known in the west ; and, before his reign was over, this court was housed in the most splendid of all European palaces—the vast palace at *Versailles*. Here were held gorgeous dances and ceremonies, concerts by the biggest and best of orchestras, playing the music of such composers as *Lully*, *Couperin*, and *Rameau*. Here, too, in the Chapel of the Palace, the devout Catholic Louis and his courtiers heard the sermons of some of Europe's greatest preachers—of whom the best known was *Bossuet*. And here, too, was a theatre where the most famous dramatists of the age had their plays performed—comic plays by *Molière* ; serious plays by *Corneille*, *Racine*, and many another. The scenery, like the pictures on the walls of the palace, was done by painters of world-wide renown. And the plays themselves, like all the best French books, were written according to strict rules made by the newly founded *Academy*, whose duty was (and still is) to draw up regulations for making the French language and French literature as exact, and yet as easy to write and to understand, as it possibly can be.

Scientists and Engineers. The Age of Louis XIV was as great in science as in other things. The most

FANCY DRESS 300 YEARS AGO



(Photo : Mansell)

The Sun King : Louis XIV in fancy dress

famous of all the scientists of the time was a philosopher—one of the most famous who have ever lived. His name was *Descartes*, and he so changed the science of thinking that all philosophers since then have followed in his footsteps. However, Descartes died when Louis XIV was still a boy. The most successful scientists of Louis's later years were engineers—men who built dams for drainage and irrigation, locks and embankments for the canals which now began to spread like a network all over France, and roads which did even more than the canals to increase French trade and riches.

Colbert. All this splendour cost no end of money, and the man who found the money was *Colbert*. He had learnt under Mazarin and Fouquet all there was to know about the finances of the country, and for about ten years after Louis took charge of the kingdom himself, Colbert was the most important Frenchman after the king. It was he who was responsible for so many roads and canals being built, and for the drainage of so much land for farming and the planting of so many forests for timber-cutting. Besides all this, Colbert did all he could to encourage new industries in France. He adopted a system known as *protection*, taxing foreign imports very heavily, so that French goods were always the cheapest to buy in France ; and French factories could expand without much fear of foreign competition. He assisted merchants to export as well ; and special companies were encouraged to trade with distant lands—especially the *French East India Company*, which was to be the chief rival of the English East India Company, founded in

1600.¹ There was a new West India Company as well, and other companies to trade with other parts of the world.

Peace or War ? Colbert remained in charge of France's money affairs till he died in 1683, but at the end of his life he was not so important as he had been. This was because Louis XIV changed his ambitions about ten years after he began to govern the kingdom himself. Till about 1671, Louis let Colbert have pretty much his own way—and Colbert's idea was to make France the greatest nation in the world in wealth and trade. But from about 1671 onwards Louis made up his mind that France was to be great in war as well—in fact, that France was to be mistress of all Europe. During the later part of his reign Louis trusted more to his war ministers (especially *Louvois*) than to men like Colbert. So the rest of the reign saw France enter war after war, in which she won a good deal at first, and then won less and less or nothing at all—while the wealth gained under Colbert was spent on armies and campaigns.

Europe at the Mercy of France. You will remember how at the Peace of Westphalia (which ended the Thirty Years War in 1648) France had gained most of Alsace,² and how at the Peace of the Pyrenees (which ended the French war against Spain) France had gained most of Artois.² If you look at the map, you will see that Alsace and the three fortresses of Metz, Toul, and Verdun³ control the upper valleys of the River *Meuse* and the River *Moselle*; and Artois

¹ See page 38.

² See page 85.

³ See page 65.

controls the upper valley of the River *Scheldt*. It is down these three river valleys that the best roads have always run into the Netherlands and the northern parts of Germany. And so it is easy to see that these possessions enabled Louis to invade the Netherlands and Germany fairly easily. Louis determined to take advantage of this ; for he hoped to make the River Rhine the eastern frontier of France, and also to make himself master of as many of the German states as possible.

The Wars of Louis XIV. During the last fifty years of Louis XIV's reign France fought four important wars. They were :

The First Dutch War, 1667-1668.

The Second Dutch War, 1672-1678.

The War of the League of Augsburg, 1688-1697.

The War of the Spanish Succession, 1702-1713.

Louis could have avoided all these wars if he had wished ; but he had made up his mind that it was his duty to give France frontiers which could not easily be invaded, and in these wars he did strengthen the French frontiers very greatly.

In the first war Louis tried to conquer part of the Spanish Netherlands. He failed in this, but he did obtain a chain of fortresses in the Netherlands for France to keep garrisoned, and by this means the French frontier was strengthened in the north-east.

Louis and the Dutch. The Dutch Wars began partly because Louis knew that the Dutch were helping his enemies, and partly because the Dutch themselves objected to the import duties which Colbert had made their merchants pay—for at this time the

Dutch had the biggest merchant navy in the world, and they could not afford to have their trade threatened as these duties of Colbert were threatening it. The second Dutch war had not gone on long when the old enemy of France, the Hapsburgs (and especially the Holy Roman Emperor), joined the Dutch. But Louis and his generals were strong enough to defeat even this combination. At the Peace of *Nymwegen*, which ended the war in 1678, the Emperor had to give up to France the district known as *Franche Comté*; and Louis also got most of the parts of Alsace and Artois which he had not conquered already.

Louis XIV and the Protestants. Between this and the next war, Louis made what is usually thought to be one of his greatest mistakes. Like Richelieu before him,¹ he was worried because the French Protestants (the "Huguenots") had special privileges. Being a devout Catholic himself, he wanted all Frenchmen to be Catholics. So in 1685 he took away from the Huguenots all the privileges which Richelieu had left them from those granted by the Edict of Nantes in 1598.² This revocation of the Edict of Nantes did make France more united in religion; but it drove from the country hundreds of thousands of Huguenots, many of whom were skilful workmen. Their skill was lost to France and to the new industries set up by Colbert, and the countries to which these Huguenots fled (especially England and the United Netherlands) gained what France lost.

Europe against the French. Four years before this Louis had gone on with his strengthening of the

¹ See page 61.

² See page 59.

frontiers by capturing the city of Strasburg, without any real excuse and in time of peace. The nations of Europe now realised that France was a danger to them all ; and therefore many of them made an alliance against France at the German city of Augsburg. This " League of Augsburg " included the Hapsburg Emperor and the Hapsburg King of Spain, as well as Sweden and Holland and many of the smaller states in Germany. Then, when the Dutchman William of Orange became King William III of England (1689), England was added to the alliance, and it seemed as though the whole of Europe was leagued against the French.

The War of the Spanish Succession. The War of the League of Augsburg dragged on for nine years ; but when both sides were only too glad to make peace (at *Ryswick*) in 1697, neither had won, and neither gained anything very much. Then, a few years later, came for Louis XIV the most important decision he ever had to make. The king of Spain died and left his kingdom of Spain to Louis's grandson, Philip. What was Louis to do ? If he accepted Spain for his grandson, he knew that all Europe would fight to prevent him from becoming master of the whole Continent in this way. But the temptation was too great for him to resist. He accepted, and for eleven years (1702-1713) he had to fight England, Holland, Austria, Savoy (in Italy), and many German states, including the ruler of *Brandenburg*, who was made *King of Prussia* in 1701 in order to get him to join the alliance against France.

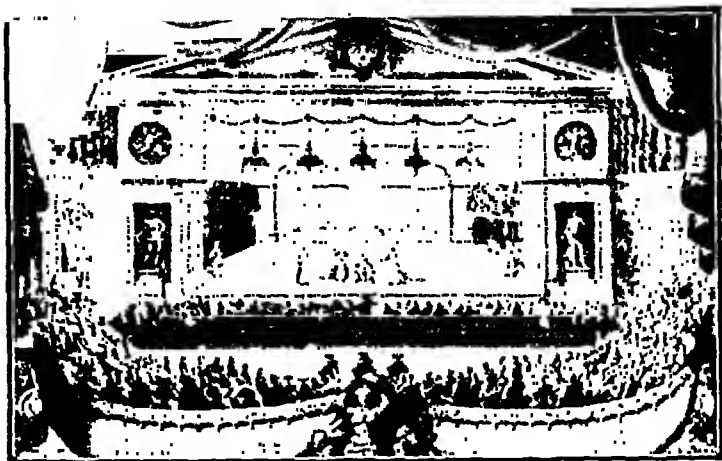
This War of the Spanish Succession was the one in

which the allies, commanded by the great English general *Marlborough*, won such astounding victories—at *Blenheim*, *Ramillies*, *Audenarde*, *Malplaquet*, and elsewhere. Yet neither side won outright. When peace was signed at *Utrecht* in 1713, the allies had to allow France to keep Spain for the French prince, so that France and Spain were allies for many years afterwards. But France had to give up much—especially to England, which got the French lands of *Hudson's Bay*, *Newfoundland*, and *Acadie* (renamed *Nova Scotia*) in America, as well as *Gibraltar*¹ and *Minorca* from Spain. Spain also had to give up her Netherlands to Austria, and so they were known as the “Austrian Netherlands” for the next century or so.

Europe's Longest Reign. Two years after the Treaty of Utrecht, Louis XIV died at the age of seventy-seven. His reign of seventy-two years is the longest known in European history. You have only to look at the map on page 85 to see how much he strengthened the French frontiers. You have only to see pictures of the French buildings, or hear the French music, or go to French plays, of his time, to realise how much he did for France in other ways. No wonder the French call him “le grand monarque”; no wonder they call his reign “the great age.”

And yet, if only the French had known, Louis had laid in store for them many ills. All his magnificence had cost too much, and not even France could bear the enormous expense. And as for his wars—they had shown France to be the strongest state in Europe, but they had made her the most unpopular state in

¹ It was captured in 1704 and has remained English ever since.



A Play by Molière (*Le Malade Imaginaire*) being performed at Versailles in 1674

Europe ; and nearly all Europe was against her. In the eighteenth century other European countries were to beat her in the race for greatness and wealth, and at the end of the century she was to suffer one of the worst revolutions in history.

Books to read :

NOVELS

A. Dumas : *THE THREE MUSKETEERS : TWENTY YEARS AFTER.* Escott
Lynn : *FOR NAME AND NATION (Chambers).* Stanley Weyman : *UNDER
THE RED ROBE (Murray).*

GENERAL

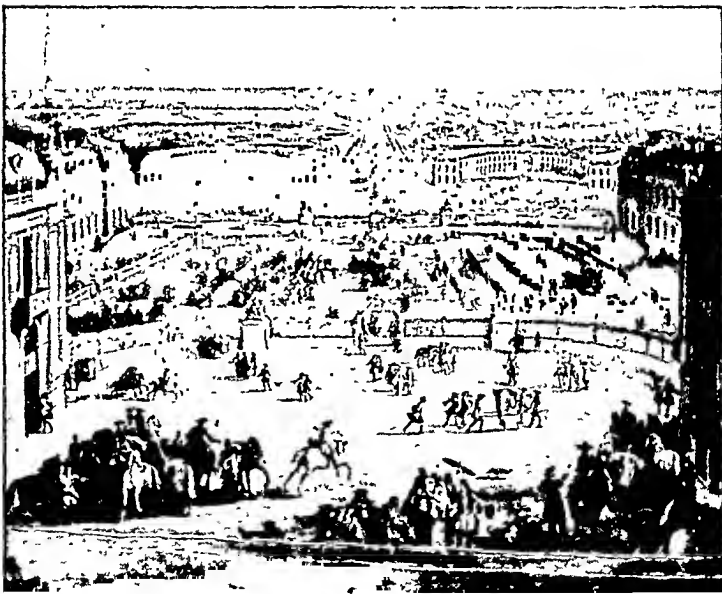
D. M. Gill : *GREAT MEN OF HISTORY (Harrap).* L. H. Farmer : *THE
BOY'S BOOK OF FAMOUS RULERS (Harrap).* Mary Macgregor : *THE
STORY OF FRANCE (Nelson).* *CHILDREN'S ENCYCLOPEDIA* (8 vol. edition),
pages 2200-02 ; (10 vol. edition), page 3922. *THE BOOK OF KNOW-
LEDGE*, pages 910, 1508, 2254-5, 2351, 2445, 3092.

*SOURCE READING :**Louis XIV at work*

Part of a memorandum written by Louis XIV for his son, to instruct him how to govern when he became King.

I made it an unbreakable rule to work regularly twice a day.

I ordered the four Secretaries of State never to sign anything at all without consulting me. I gave the same instructions to the Chief Intendant, and forbade him to make any change in the finances without entering it in a



(Photo : H. B. Martin)

The Palace at Versailles
(from an 18th century print)

register. This register I kept myself, with a summary of its contents, from which I could tell at a glance, at any moment, the condition of the Treasury and the payments already made or due to be made. . . .

I allowed all my subjects, without exception, the privilege of appealing to me at all times, either in person or by written petitions. These petitions were, from the first, very numerous. . . . In this way I got to know for myself the condition of my people, and they realised that I was thinking of them. Nothing else did so much as this to gain their affection for me.

I took care to be present sometimes at the conferences of the separate departments of the government (at which it was usual for the Chancellor to preside for me, as the business done there is only about details). If you can manage to spare the time from more important duties, you would do well to follow the same practice occasionally, for your presence will stir up the ministers to greater energy at their work. You will also, by this means, make yourself familiar with the reports and memoranda which are discussed, and which usually provide the information for coming to a decision in matters connected with the provinces, the army, foreign embassies, and so on.

Above all, I was determined never to appoint a first minister, or let anyone else have the authority of the king, while I had only the title. Instead, I took care to divide the carrying out of my commands among several persons, in order that all real power should be kept in my hands alone.

Exercises on the Source Reading

1. Find out the exact meaning of the following : finance ; Treasury ; Chancellor ; memoranda ; embassies.
2. What were the duties of (a) the Chief Intendant, (b) the other Intendants ?
3. Make a summary, in your own words, of the tasks of Louis XIV mentioned in this reading.
4. Do you think Louis XIV was wise or unwise to do so much work himself ? Give reasons for your answer.

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER VII

To your TIME CHART for the seventeenth century add the following : the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, 1685 ; the capture of Strashurg, 1681 ; the war dates mentioned on pages 84-7 ; the names of the most famous Frenchmen of the time of Louis XIV.

Begin a TIME CHART for the eighteenth century. Divide it into three columns, headed " British History," " European History," and " Non-European History " ; insert the following in their proper places : the reign of Louis XIV ; the war dates mentioned on pages 84-8 ; the establishment of the Kingdom of Prussia, 1701.

Complete your MAP of the additions made to France in the reign of Louis XIV by adding the territories gained after 1659.

Draw a GRAPH to show the fortunes of the French Protestants between 1550 and 1700.

Questions

A

1. What do you know of the following : Richelieu ; Mazarin ; Versailles ; the French Academy ; the Peace of Westphalia ; the Peace of the Pyrenees ; the Hapsburgs ; the Edict of Nantes ; Marlborough ; Descartes ; Molière ; Corneille ; Racine ; Couperin ; Rameau ?

2. What is the meaning of the following : *Intendant* ; *le roi soleil* ; Protection ; Huguenot ; Holy Roman Empire ?

3. What did Colbert do for France ?

4. In what ways did Louis XIV make good his boast to be " the Sun King " ?

5. What do you know about (a) literature, (b) science, (c) music, in the time of Louis XIV ?

6. What were the names and dates of the chief wars fought by Louis XIV, and what did France gain by each ? What did France lose by these wars ?

B





7. Discuss whether Louis XIV was wise or unwise to have so many wars of conquest.

8. Collect views of famous French buildings erected during the reign of Louis XIV.

9. Play or learn some French music or poetry written during the reign of Louis XIV.

TIME CHART : 1620 to 1820 A.D.

(Scale : 1 inch=40 years)

	A.D.	BRITISH HISTORY (Empire History In Italics)	FOREIGN HISTORY (Non-European History In Italics)
	1625	1620 <i>New England founded</i> 1628 <i>Petition of Right</i>	1618-48 <i>Thirty Years War</i> 1624-42 <i>Richelieu in power</i>
		1625-49 <i>Charles I</i>	
	1650	1642-9 <i>Civil War</i> 1653-8 <i>Cromwell Protector</i> 1660 <i>Restoration of the Stuarts</i>	1644 <i>Monchus conquer China</i> 1627-58 <i>Shah Jehan</i>
	1675	1660-85 <i>Charles II</i>	1643-1715 <i>Louis XIV</i> 1658-1707 <i>Aurangzeb</i> 1662-1723 <i>K'ong Hsi</i>
		1688-9 <i>The Revolution</i>	
	1700	1643-1727 <i>Newton</i> 1702-13 <i>War of the</i> 1707 <i>Union of England and Scotland</i>	1701 <i>Prussia a kingdom</i> <i>Spanish Succession</i> 1689-1725 <i>Peter the Great</i>
	1725	1721-42 <i>Walpole premier</i>	
		1742-67 <i>Dupleix</i>	<i>and Clive in India</i>
	1750	1756-61 <i>Elder Pitt premier</i> 1756-63 <i>The Seven</i> 1759-60 <i>Conquest of Canada</i> 1759-70 <i>Brindley's chief canals</i>	<i>Years War</i> 1740-86 <i>Frederick the Great</i>
	1775	1774 <i>Oxy</i> 1768-79 <i>Voyages of Captain Cook</i> 1736-1819 <i>James Watt</i> 1760-1820 <i>George III</i> 1784-1801 and 1804-6 <i>Younger Pitt premier</i>	<i>gen collected</i> 1765-90 <i>Joseph II</i> 1776 <i>Declaration of American Independence</i> 1762-96 <i>Catherine the Great</i> 1789 <i>French Revolution begins</i>
	1800	1800 <i>Union of Great Britain and Ireland</i> 1805 <i>Battle of Trafalgar</i>	1789-97 <i>Washington President of U.S.A.</i> 1799-1815 <i>Napoleon ruler of France</i>
	1820	1815 <i>Battle of Waterloo</i>	1815 <i>Peace of Vienna</i>



CHAPTER EIGHT

ACROSS EUROPE IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

“The Great Age”: Science. To the French the time of Louis XIV was “the Great Age” because of Louis himself and the glories of his conquests and his Court. But for Europe as a whole this was “the Great Age” for glories of quite another kind. It was the great age of science and scientific discovery. If we take the lifetime of Louis XIV from beginning to end, we shall find that during those seventy-seven years some of the greatest scientists in the history of the world were alive. We have already heard of the French philosopher Descartes.¹ But most of the others were not Frenchmen. Another philosopher of those days, almost as famous as Descartes, was the Dutch Jew *Spinoza* (1632–1677). It was an Englishman, *Harvey* (1578–1657), who discovered the all-important fact that the blood circulates round the body. Perhaps the greatest scientist of them all was the Italian *Galileo*, who died at the age of seventy-eight when Louis XIV was only four. Galileo was the man who proved that Copernicus had been right about the relation of the earth to the sun and stars; and he made many other important scientific discoveries.

Galileo’s work in astronomy was continued by one of the most famous of all Englishmen, *Isaac Newton* (1642–1727). We all know something of what Newton

¹ See page 82.

discovered about the Law of Gravity ; and mathematicians know much more about the importance of his experiments and his writings. In fact, another great mathematician of that great age, *Leibnitz*, the German (1646-1716), said of Newton that "if we think of mathematics from the beginning of the world till Newton's time, what Newton did was more than half." Newton was one of the earliest members of the newly founded English *Royal Society* for helping on scientific studies. To this day the Fellowship of the Royal Society ("F.R.S.") is one of the most coveted honours among British scientists. Only a few years after this English society, the French *Academy of Science* was founded (1666) ; and the *Berlin Academy* followed in 1700.

"The Great Age" : Music. There was something else, closely connected with mathematics, which was passing through a "great age" in the time of Louis XIV. This was music. In the year 1685 (a little over half-way through the reign of Louis) there were born in Germany two of the world's greatest composers—*J. S. Bach* and *G. F. Handel*. Bach was more of a mathematician than Handel, and much of his music (especially his *fugues* and his experiments on keyboards—the kind we still use for pianos and organs) was based on a deep knowledge of mathematics. But he also wrote much music which was more emotional than mathematical—including 300 cantatas, and vast quantities of other church music besides. Handel too wrote much religious music. Everybody knows of his *Messiah*, if not of his other oratorios. But Handel also wrote many *operas*—and, in fact, it was during

the reign of Louis XIV that the first opera houses in Europe were opened : in London, Paris, Rome, and Hamburg. Although Handel was a German, he lived most of his life and wrote most of his music in England.

Musicians like these and the French ones of whom we have already read helped to make the lives of rich people pleasanter in those days—especially as orchestras were just coming into fashion now that the violin and violoncello had been perfected. Many nobles as well as kings had their own private orchestras and organists. But the poorer people knew nothing of these pleasures. And as, in those days, the rich were very few indeed and most men were poor, we had better see now how the poor lived in the various countries of seventeenth-century Europe.

Country Life in Western Europe : England. If you had travelled across Europe in the seventeenth century you would have found that the poorer people were living in much the same ways in most countries. They had benefited very little from the great discoveries which science was making. The working-people of England were rather better off than most of those on the Continent, because England had already managed to get rid of the old Feudal System. In England overlords had been replaced by *squires*, who were still the lords of the people, but not "overlords" who could use the peasants almost like private property. The old feudal ways of farming had gone. Instead of huge "open fields" cultivated in strips by the village as a whole, there were hedged fields where rich men farmed sheep, or where men not so rich cultivated their own little farms and made quite a

comfortable living out of them. These rather comfortably-off English farmers were known as *yeomen*, and there were enough of them to make English farming quite prosperous compared with much of the farming abroad.

Country Life in France. In France, on the other hand, there was still enough left of feudalism to make the lot of the peasants far from happy. Every village still had its *seigneur*, or lord, and many of the lords were so selfish that they made their peasants' lives miserable. In the old feudal days lords had defended the peasants from danger, and in return the peasants owed all sorts of duties to the lords. But since Richelieu and Mazarin and Louis XIV had made the lords less important and had made the government responsible for protecting everybody, the lords no longer had these duties towards their people.

The Peasants and their Lords. And yet the lords still had the old rights which the peasants found so hard. For instance, there was the duty called the *corvée* which the peasants had to do for the lords—making and mending roads and bridges and doing any other navvying which the lord required. Besides this, the lord could charge a toll fee against every cart which went along the roads or across the bridges on his land. He could make the peasants work several days a week on his domain, and extra days during the busy seasons of the year such as harvest times. He charged them high rents; he forced them to grind their corn at his private mill, to bake their bread at his private oven; and so on—and to pay him for the privilege. Often he kept all the good hunting for

himself, so that the peasants could not eke out their livelihood by catching game.

The Peasants and the Government. When the lords had finished with the impoverished countryfolk, the government began. There was a sort of income-tax called the *taille* to pay, and the *gabelle*, which compelled the people to buy their salt only from the government agents and at the government's own prices; and in those days huge quantities of salt were needed every year to salt the winter's meat. For those were the days before winter food for cattle was known, and most cattle had to be killed off and salted in the autumn.

Last of all, even the Church helped to keep the people poor. In all Catholic countries the countryfolk had to pay about a tenth ("*tithe*") of their harvests and other gains to help to maintain the priest and the work of the parish. Very often this led to more grumbling than all the demands of the lord, because the priest was usually an ordinary peasant like the rest, and they dared to say to him things they dared not say to their lord. When all these payments had been made and all these duties done, the French peasants often had less than one-fifth of their earnings left for themselves.

Peasants at Home. No wonder country life in France and elsewhere on the Continent was often so squalid. The houses of the ordinary people were the merest shacks—wooden huts or shanties of boughs covered with sacking. They had hardly any furniture—just a rough table, a chair or two, and for beds often no more than a heap of straw or old clothes.



(Photo Mansell)

A family of French peasants in the time of Louis XIV.
Painted by *Le Nain*

Many a winter there was famine when the weather was cruel after a season of bad harvest. And, naturally, plagues of all sorts spread among the half-fed peasants. When the supply of salted meat ran out, soon after the New Year, they used to wander about the countryside gathering fern-roots, acorns, and any other scraps they could find to grind among their corn for flour. Most of the children died before they were four or five, so that the population of all these countries never rose above a fifth or sixth of what it is to-day.

German Life in the Seventeenth Century. In Germany things were even worse, as a rule, than they

were in France. For here there was no king to keep the lords from their selfishness. England, France, Spain, Holland, Sweden, and many other lands were single states with governments of their own ; but it was to be another two hundred years before Germany and Italy reached this condition. Instead of the one state which we now know as Germany, there were in the seventeenth century several hundreds. And each of them had its own separate ruler—a count or landgrave or duke. This ruler might be a good lord, and if so his people were fairly happy. But if he was determined to do the best for himself without bothering much about his people, they were in the depths of misery. Of course, there were in Germany a few big states where the government was not bad—Austria, whose “archduke” was Holy Roman Emperor as well as lord of Austria ; Brandenburg, whose “Elector” got the title of King of Prussia in 1701 ; Bohemia, which had had a king of its own for centuries ; Bavaria, whose ruler had been made an “Elector” in this very century. But most of the hundreds of German states were very small. Some of them were merely towns—such as Hamburg or Frankfort, whose trade had been famous in the Middle Ages. Strangely enough, these town-states were often the best ruled of all, because townspeople, living together as they do in large numbers, were able to get together and make sure that they were not ill-treated by their rulers.

Life in Seventeenth-Century Russia. The further east you went in Europe the worse things seemed to be. They were worst of all in Russia, which was no more civilised in the seventeenth century than England

and France had been in the thirteenth. The Russian lords of the manors were at least as bad as any in Europe, and most of them were terribly ignorant men. And in Russia there were no local counts or dukes, as there were in Germany, to keep the village lords from going too far ; nor was there a strong king, as there was in England and France, to see to the government. The *Tsar*, or emperor, was supposed to have unlimited power ; and so he had. But he used it for his own purposes, against his own enemies, and hardly ever gave the ordinary people of Russia a thought. The Russian *boyars*, or nobles, lived at the Tsar's court and had a good time (unless they offended the Tsar in any way) ; but very few of them indeed took any interest in the peasants.

Russia was really too big to be well governed, and that is why conditions were so bad there. However, at the very end of the seventeenth century there arose a great Russian Tsar who did make enormous improvements. This was *Peter the Great*, about whom we shall read in the next chapter.

Books to read :

NOVEL

M. Gerard : *THE ADVENTURES OF AN EQUERRY* (*Cassell*).

GENERAL

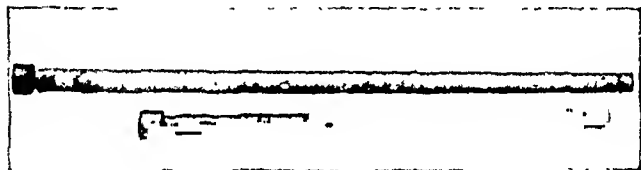
D. M. Stuart : *THE BOY THROUGH THE AGES* (*Harrap*) : *THE GIRL THROUGH THE AGES* (*Harrap*). E. and R. Power : *BOYS AND GIRLS OF HISTORY*, Book II (*C.U.P.*). W. W. Bryant : *GALILEO* (*S.P.C.K.*). A. Williams Ellis : *MEN WHO FOUND OUT* (*Howe*). C. R. Gibson : *HEROES OF THE SCIENTIFIC WORLD* (*Seeley*). F. J. Rowbotham : *STORY-LIVES OF GREAT MEN OF SCIENCE* (*Wells Gardner*). Percy Scholes : *THE BOOK OF THE GREAT MUSICIANS* (*O.U.P.*). *CHILDREN'S ENCYCLOPEDIA* (8 vol. edition), pages 1656-62, 3243-4 ; (10 vol. edition), pages 142-4, 3609-14. *THE BOOK OF KNOWLEDGE*, pages 1532, 1683-4, 2586-8.

SOURCE READING :

Galileo makes his First Telescope

This is Galileo's own account, from the beginning of his book *The Astronomical Messenger*, published in the year 1610.

Ten months or so ago a rumour reached me that a Belgian scientist had made a spy-glass with which visible objects, even if a long way from the eye of the observer, could be seen as clearly as if they were near. News was going around about successful tests of this spy-glass, but although many people believed in it, many others refused



(Photo: Mantell)

Galileo's first telescopes

to do so. However, not many days afterwards I had a letter from the distinguished Frenchman, Jacques Badovere of Paris, which confirmed these accounts, and convinced me that it was worth while to begin theoretical and practical research, in order to invent a similar instrument. So I applied myself to the study of refraction, and it was not long before I had my spy-glass finished. I made a tube (using lead on this first occasion) and inserted lenses in the ends of it. Both lenses were flat on one side, but on the other side one was convex, and the other concave. When I put my eye to the concave lens, I could see distant objects fairly clearly, as though they were near. In fact, they appeared three times closer, and nine times bigger, than when they were seen by the naked eye. Later, I

constructed another glass which was more accurate, and made things seem sixty times larger. I spared myself neither labour nor expense, and at last I managed to make an instrument so much improved that things seen through it appeared about 1,000 times larger, and over thirty times nearer, than if seen by the naked eye. I need not mention all the advantages which this instrument could bring to its users, both on land and on sea. Anyway, I myself disregarded earthly objects, and confined myself to the heavenly bodies. First of all I saw the Moon as if it were quite near—not more than one diameter of the Earth distant. After this, I frequently enjoyed watching the stars and planets; and through observing them so often, I began to work out a method of measuring the distances between them. This I eventually succeeded in doing.

Exercises on the Source Reading

1. What is the meaning of the following : research ; refraction ; lens ; convex ; concave ; "telescope" ; star ; planet ?
2. "I need not mention all the advantages which this instrument could bring to its users, both on land and on sea" : mention as many as possible of these advantages yourself.
3. How many diameters of the earth is the moon really distant from us ? How far away do the best modern telescopes make it appear ?
4. In what countries did the scientists mentioned in this reading live ? (Remember that there was no Belgium then.)
5. Read (in an encyclopedia or some other book) about Galileo, and write an account of his life.

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER VIII

To your TIME CHARTS for the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries add in their proper columns and positions the great scientists and musicians mentioned in this chapter.

Draw a MAP of Germany in the seventeenth century, showing as many as possible of the separate states.

Questions

A

1. What do you know about the following : Descartes ; Spinoza ; Harvey ; Galileo ; Newton ; Leibnitz ; Bach ; Handel ?

2. What is the meaning of the following : F.R.S. ; feudal ; open fields ; yeoman ; squire ; *seigneur* ; *corvée* ; *taille* ; *gabelle* ; tithe ; Holy Roman Emperor ; Elector ; *boyar* ?

3. Why was the seventeenth century a "great age" in (a) science (b) music ?

4. What were the chief hardships of poor people in seventeenth-century Europe ?

5. In what ways was Germany unlike other countries in the seventeenth century ?

B

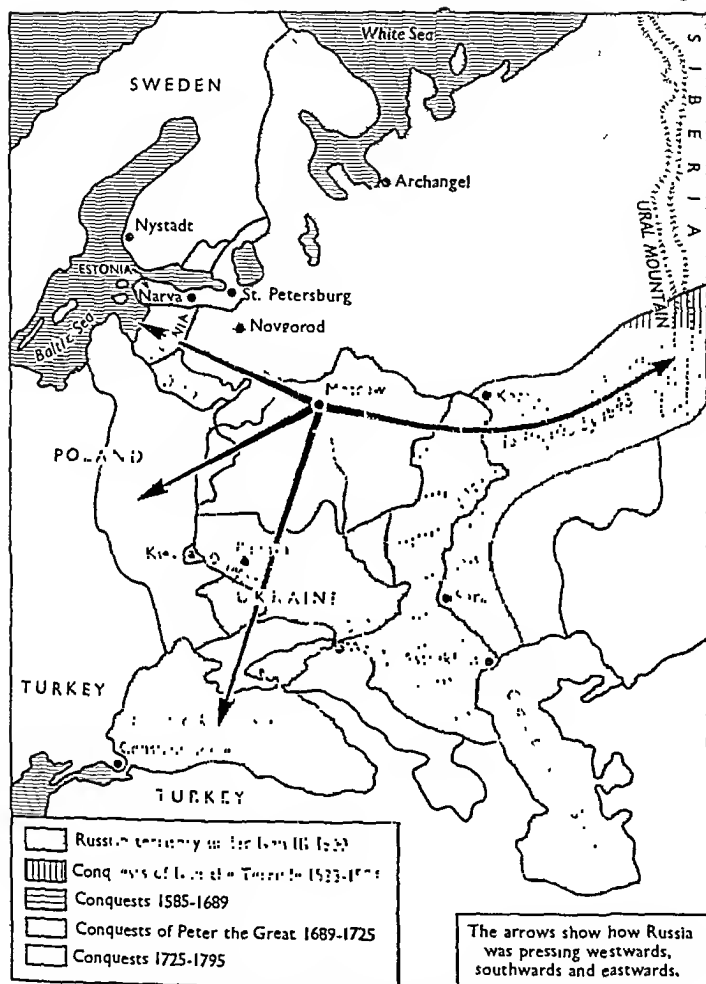
6. In what ways was country life in England in the seventeenth century unlike country life abroad at that time ?

7. Write an essay on "Feudalism across seventeenth-century Europe."

CHAPTER NINE

RUSSIA AND PETER THE GREAT

Nobles and Peasants in Russia. The ordinary peasants in Russia (as we saw in the last chapter) were worse off than any others in Europe. During the seventeenth century they had become worse off still. The Tsars wanted the nobles to help them to make Russia a strong, single, united kingdom like England and France and the other united kingdoms of western Europe ; and the nobles would not let the Tsars be masters of all Russia unless the Tsars let the nobles be masters on their own lands over their own peasants. So the peasants were made the slaves (or *serfs*, as they are usually called, which is much the same thing) of the nobles. Their masters could do anything they liked with them, and it was quite common for an angry noble to punish his people by flogging them with knotted ropes or even by putting them to death. Thus the boyars became complete masters of their serfs ;



How *Muscovy* grew into *Russia*

What is there in this map to show why Moscow became the chief city in Russia?

What ports are shown in this map? Are they in suitable positions? Why?

the Tsar became the complete master of the boyars ; and so Russia began to be governed with better law and order. But for the poor it was a cruel law and a terribly strict order.

All the Russias. Until the sixteenth century there was no single Russia at all. There were at least three important Russias, as well as a number of smaller ones. The biggest and strongest of all was around Moscow, and it was known as *Muscovy*. You can see from the map why Moscow made such a good capital city. It lies near to four of Europe's greatest rivers : the biggest of all, the Volga, running into the Caspian Sea ; the Don and the Dnieper, running into the Black Sea ; and the Duna, running into the Baltic. So in those days, when there were hardly any roads, and rivers were the best highways for traffic, the merchants of Muscovy could send their goods in nearly all directions. This made Muscovy richer than the rest of the Russias ; but all the same, the rest of the Russias were quite important—especially that northern Russia called *Novgorod*, and that southern Russia called *Kiev* (nowadays it is always known as the *Ukraine*).

Ivan III. There were separate rulers at Novgorod and at Kiev until the time of the Muscovite Tsar *Ivan III* (1462 to 1505). It was Ivan III's great work to unite these three Russias into one, all ruled from Moscow, and so Ivan III was the first Tsar to earn the title of *Tsar of all the Russias*. Under him the frontiers of Muscovy reached the White and Baltic seas, and so Muscovite merchants became richer and Muscovy itself became stronger than ever. Besides, Ivan III was the first to take the proud title of *Tsar*,

meaning "emperor."¹ Only recently the old Eastern Empire had come to an end when the Turks captured Constantinople (in 1453); and Ivan III thought of himself as a new Eastern Emperor. He, and all the Tsars who came after him, took the Christians of the Greek, or "Orthodox," Church, under their protection. That is why Moscow was the headquarters of the Greek Church till this twentieth century, and why Russia has fought so many wars to prevent the Greek Christians from being ill-treated by the Turks.

Landlocked Russia. When Ivan III died, Russia was united; but it was still only a tiny fragment of the Russia we know to-day. It was the work of later Tsars to extend the Russian frontiers, and especially to get good sea-ports for the Russian merchants to use. You have only to look at the map to see how awkwardly Russia is placed, even to-day. Ports on the Baltic and the White Seas are all very well, but the only way out of the White Sea is blocked by winter ice and the only way out of the Baltic is blocked by Denmark and Sweden. What Russians have always wanted is ports from which they can get wherever they like without interference. In Europe Russia has never succeeded in doing this; and so, from time to time, some of the Tsars have decided that Russia must expand eastward instead of westward, and become part of Asia instead of part of Europe.

Ivan the Terrible. This was the decision taken by the most famous Tsar of the sixteenth century, *Ivan the Terrible* (1533-1584). His nickname shows the fear which his subjects felt for him: he was one

¹ It is really the same word as "Cæsar," "Kaiser" and "Shah."

of Europe's cruellest rulers, even for those cruel days. But he did many good things for his country. He encouraged his subjects to go as colonists into the great hinterland of *Siberia*, which is still one of the richest and most valuable parts of modern Russia. And Ivan also took care of Russian trade, even its trade with the West. For instance, in the year 1553 an English expedition under Willoughby and Chancellor set out to seek a "North-East Passage" to America. It failed to do this; but Ivan knew that what the Englishmen really wanted was more trade, and so did the Russians. So he persuaded Willoughby and Chancellor to go overland from the port of Archangel to Moscow, and they were so impressed with what they saw that soon after they returned to England an English "*Muscovy Company*" was set up for the special purpose of trading with the Russians.

The Troublous Times. However, Ivan was too cruel a despot, and after he died less cruel Tsars found it impossible to keep order. There was a period of civil wars, called the "Troublous Times," which looked like splitting Russia up again. But at last a new family of Tsars took over the government and restored order. This was the *Romanov* dynasty. The first of them, Michael, became Tsar in 1612; and the last of them was assassinated in the Russian revolution of 1917. It was Michael who completed the slavery of the Russian peasants in order to get the help of the Russian nobles, and with their help he ended the Troublous Times.

Peter the Great. The grandson of Michael was *Peter the Great*. He ruled from 1689 till 1725, and



(British Museum)

A Moscow street in the eighteenth century

The bulbous spires and wooden huts on the left are relics of the older Russia : the buildings in the middle and on the right are copied from the countries of Western Europe.

during those thirty-six years he thoroughly earned his title of "the Great." He was one of the Tsars who thought that Russia should become a Western European Power, and not an Asiatic one. He took no end of trouble to make his subjects (especially the nobles) share this view. He tried to change the Russian people from Eastern to Western ways in one generation. He was particular about even such little things as the way they dressed. He made them give up the long coats in which they looked more like

Tartars than Europeans; and he even made them shave off their beards because beards were unfashionable in Europe.

But Peter the Great started to Westernise Russia in more important things than these. He took an interest in all the ways in which he thought the people of the West were better than the peoples of the East. Like the Tsars before him, he encouraged trade with Western peoples. He visited Western lands himself; he worked with his own hands in English and German dockyards, in order to learn how the ships of western Europe were built. He encouraged Western scientists and teachers to come to Russia and teach his people what they knew. And he made his army as like the armies of France and Sweden as possible.

Charles XII of Sweden. It was Sweden which taught him the need to Westernise his armies in this way. If you look at the map once more, you will see that Sweden and the new Russia were almost bound to come to blows about the Baltic Sea. Under its Vasa kings¹ Sweden had been spreading its lands around the north of the Baltic, and Gustavus Adolphus had even won lands on its southern coasts.¹ Now that Russia had spread to the Baltic as well, there was certain to be rivalry for the lands which both Russia and Sweden wanted at the Eastern end of the Baltic Sea.

That rivalry burst out when both Russia and Sweden had warrior kings—Peter the Great and the young *Charles XII*, who became king of Sweden in 1697, when he was only fifteen. Charles was a much better general

¹ See pages 63-5, and the map on page 64.

than king, and he spent too much of his time in war, to the neglect of Sweden's needs at home. Peter the Great was not like this. He was as interested in his people as in his armies, and so he was not ready for war so soon as Charles. Consequently, Sweden was victorious at first—especially at the battle of the River *Narva* in 1700, where the untrained Russian army was overwhelmed. But Peter was not to be caught napping again. During the next few years he made his army one of the best in Europe; and when it met the Swedes again at *Pultava* (1709), the tables were turned. Not only was the Swedish army beaten; Sweden herself could no longer keep up her position as one of the great powers of Europe, nor hold Russia off from the lands she coveted at the eastern end of the Baltic.

Such was the result of Charles's neglect of Sweden's real needs. Yet at this very time Peter had been going on with his Western improvements in Russia and had begun to make for her a new capital city, with buildings and harbours like those of the west, and even with a Western, German name (*St. Petersburg*) instead of a Russian one.¹ The struggle between Charles and Peter went on for many more years; but Charles was killed in 1718, and in any case Sweden's day was past. At the *Peace of Nystadt* in 1721 she had to give up to Russia the lands of *Livonia* and *Esthonia*, which brought Russia round towards the southern shore of the Baltic.

By the time of Peter's death in 1725 no one could

¹ During the Great War of 1914-9 this was changed to the Russian "Petrograd"; but the revolutionaries of 1917 renamed it "Leningrad."

doubt any longer that Russia was now one of the greater Powers of Europe—especially when she obtained the great port of *Azov*, on the Black Sea, from the Turks in 1739. This gave her a southern outlet for her trade and made her stronger than ever.

Books to read :

NOVEL

D. Alcock : *THE TSAR*.

GENERAL

D. M. Gill : *GREAT MEN OF HISTORY (Harrap)*. E. Priestley : *BUILDERS OF EUROPE (Dent)*. Sir J. Barrow : *LIFE OF PETER THE GREAT*. L. H. Farmer : *THE BOY'S BOOK OF FAMOUS RULERS (Harrap)*. H. Hayens : *MAKERS OF NATIONS*. *CHILDREN'S ENCYCLOPEDIA* (8 vol. edition), pages 3626-30 ; (10 vol. edition), pages 5893-5. *THE BOOK OF KNOWLEDGE*, pages 799-800, 2026, 2828-30, 2924-5, 3148-9, 3172, 3252-3.

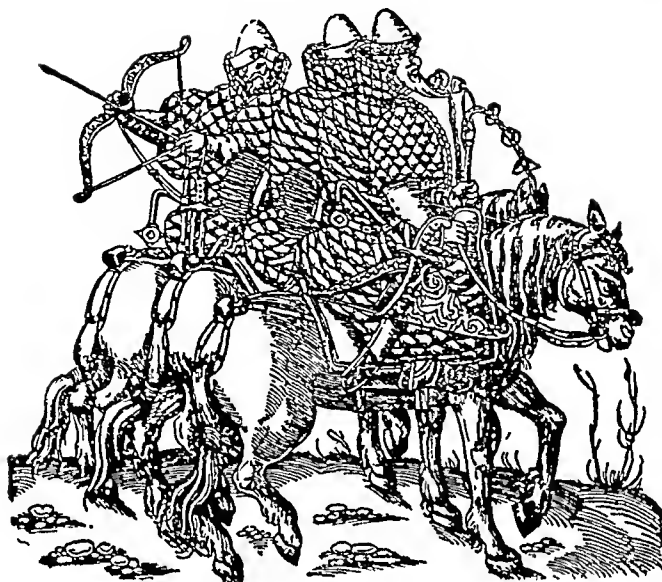
SOURCE READING :

An Englishman in Sixteenth-century Russia

From "The booke of the greate and mighty Emperor of Russia and Duke of Moscovia, and of the dominions, orders and commodities thereunto belonging : drawn by Richard Chancelour."

They be naturally given to hard living, as well in fare as in lodging. I heard a Russian say, that it was a great deale merrier living in prison than outside, but for the great beating. For they have meate and drinke without any labour, and get the charitic of well-disposed people. But being at liberty they get nothing.

The poore is very innumerable, and live most miserably : for I have seene them eate the pickle of hearring and other stinking fish. Nor the fish cannot be so stinking nor rotten, but they will eate it and praise it to be more wholesome than other fish or fresh meate. In mine opinion there be no such people under the sunne for their hardness of living.



(British Museum)

Horsemen of Muscovy
(from a 16th century print)

Well, I will leave them in this poynt, and will in part declare their religion. They doe observe the lawe of the Greekes, with such excesse of superstition as the like hath not been heard of. They have no graven images in their churches, but all painted, to the intent they will not breake the commandement ; but to their painted images they use such idolatrie, that the like was never heard of in England. . . . All the while the Priest readeth, the people sit downe and one talke with another. But when the Priest is at service, no man sitteth, but gagle and ducke like so many geese. And as for their prayers, they have but little skill, but use to say, " As bodi pomele " ; as much as to say, " Lord have mercy upon me." For the tenth man within the land cannot say the Paternoster.

Exercises on the Source Reading

1. What do you know about Chancellor? Try to find out (from an encyclopedia) more about him and his voyages.
2. Who was the "Emperor of Russia and Duke of Moscovia" at this time? What do you know about him?
3. To what Church did the Russians belong? Why does Chancellor call their religion "the lawe of the Greekes"? What other countries have belonged to this Church?
4. Which "commandement" did the Russian Christians refuse to break? How did they think it was being broken in Western Europe?

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER IX

To your TIME CHARTS for the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries add the following in their proper places: beginning of the Romanov dynasty; Peter the Great; Charles XII of Sweden; battles of Narva and Pultava; Peace of Nystadt; Azov becomes Russian.

Draw a GRAPH showing the expansion of Russia, 1500 to 1800 (finish this after reading Chapter Thirteen).

On the same axes draw a GRAPH showing the rise and fall of Sweden as a great power in Europe.

Questions

A

1. What do you know about the following: Muscovy; Novgorod; Kiev; Ivan III; Ivan the Terrible; Siberia; Willoughby and Chancellor; Muscovy Company; Romanovs; Gustavus Adolphus; Charles XII; Battle of Narva; Battle of Pultava; St. Petersburg; Peace of Nystadt; Azov?
2. What is the meaning of the following: *Boyar*; *Tsar*; "all the Russias"; "Orthodox" Church; "the Troublous Times"; dynasty?
3. In what ways was Russia unlike most other European countries in the seventeenth century?
4. Why was Moscow suited to become the chief city in Russia?
5. How did Peter the Great (a) extend the boundaries of Russia, (b) try to westernise the Russian people?
6. Write an account of the wars between Peter the Great and Charles XII, explaining their causes and their results.

B

7. Discuss whether Russia would be better as a European or an Asiatic country.
8. Write an essay comparing and contrasting Peter the Great and Charles XII of Sweden.

CHAPTER TEN

MINGS, MANCHUS, AND MOGHULS

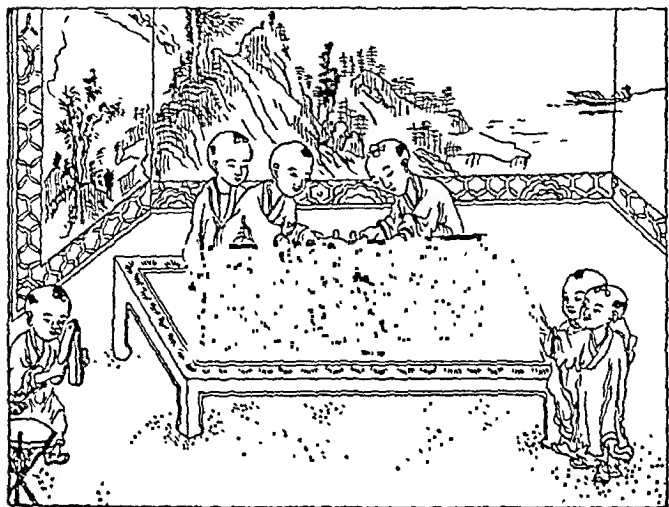
The East beyond Russia. If you had travelled, in the days of Peter the Great, beyond the lands which Peter ruled, to those lands in Asia which Peter hated so, you would have found things far different from anything in Europe. To begin with, you would not have known when you had left Peter's lands, because there were no frontiers. But the further east you went, the fewer signs you would see of any government at all. Before long you would be among the steppes of Central Asia—mighty plains with very few trees and no buildings anywhere. The people in those parts were nomads (as so many of them still are), tending their flocks and herds among their tents of skin, and moving their skin homes when the food for the animals ran out. These tribesmen had never heard of the great Tsar Peter, nor of the other great emperor who ruled far away in the East, in China. Russia was fairly civilised under the rule of Peter the Great; China was very civilised under its own emperor; but the lands between knew nothing of that city life which we call "civilisation."

Into China. Then, as you continued eastward, you would begin to come across more and more frequent signs that there was a strong government somewhere, keeping the peace. No doubt the sign of which you would see most would be the tax-collector, forcing the people to pay more than they said they could afford towards the government expenses. You

would also see more and more villages, and even towns, with bullock-carts rumbling along rough roads ; and temples and priests and monasteries and merchants using money—and bandits attacking the merchants, for the Chinese government was not able to keep these men in check altogether. And at last you would come to the great capital city of the Chinese Empire—the city of Peking.

The Ming Emperors. Peking was no longer what it had been in the splendid days of Kublai Khan, back in the Middle Ages. In those days no city of Europe could vie with it for magnificence. But still it was bigger than most cities of the West ; and its citizens thought themselves the most civilised people in the world—far more civilised than the occasional travellers who came from Europe, and who seemed to the Chinese to be just barbarians.

At the time of which we are speaking Kublai Khan had been dead for four centuries, and his great Tartar Empire had been vanished for nearly three of them. For about three hundred years China had again been ruled by truly Chinese emperors—a family called the *Mings*, with real Chinese names like Hung Wu and Wan Li. Hung Wu had laid the fortunes of the Ming dynasty when he drove out the Tartar emperors in the fourteenth century. After him, China settled down to the peaceful ways which the Chinese have always preferred to the ways of war. Their emperors made the lives of their subjects more and more safe and comfortable. Wan Li (he lived a hundred years before Peter the Great, and reigned from 1573 to 1620, in the time of the English Queen Elizabeth I) even



(British Museum)

The Puppet Show. A painting of the Ming period in China

encouraged travellers to come from the West, including Europe, and teach his people something of their ways. It was at this time that the Jesuits ¹ were trying to win the world to the Catholic Church, and they sent many missionaries to China, among other places. Wan Li welcomed them, because he saw that Europeans could teach even the Chinese things they did not know—especially things connected with Western science.

The Manchus. But even in Wan Li's time there was danger. The Empire was invaded time after time by armies from *Manchuria* in the north-east, and the Ming emperors were less and less able to drive

¹ See page 48.

them back. At last, only twenty-four years after Wan Li's death, the Chinese were conquered by the Manchurians, and a family of Manchurian emperors, called the *Manchus*, became rulers of China. These Manchu rulers remained on the Chinese throne till they were driven away by the great Chinese revolution in 1911, when China became a republic, and did away with Emperors altogether.

Like the Tartar emperors of old, the Manchu emperors soon became thoroughly Chinese and settled down to the peaceful Chinese ways. One of the best of them was reigning at the same time as Peter the Great (from 1662 to 1723). His name was *K'ang Hsi*. His reign was just as "Chinese" as Peter's was "Russian." K'ang Hsi's great works were not done in war but in peace. Two of the most important things of his reign were books. One was a good, reliable dictionary of the Chinese language, with its hundreds of letters and queer combinations of words; and another was a huge encyclopedia which tried to explain to the learned men of China everything under their eastern sun. Each volume had about 200 pages—and there were 1628 volumes.¹ But probably the best thing which K'ang Hsi did for China was to revive an old way of appointing men to government posts. From his time these posts had to be won in a competitive examination (as similar posts are in England now). Anybody could compete, whether his father was rich or poor; and in this way K'ang made

¹ Even this was nothing compared with an earlier Chinese encyclopedia, of the fifteenth century, which had 11,000 volumes and was the biggest book ever made.

sure that his government should be carried on by the best brains obtainable.

At the end of his reign, however, K'ang began to do an unwise thing. He turned out of China as many white men as possible, although white men had recently done so much for the country. For more than a century after that, white men found it more and



What was the importance of each of the places printed in *small type*?

more difficult to get into China for anything, and this caused no end of trouble later on to both Chinese and Europeans.

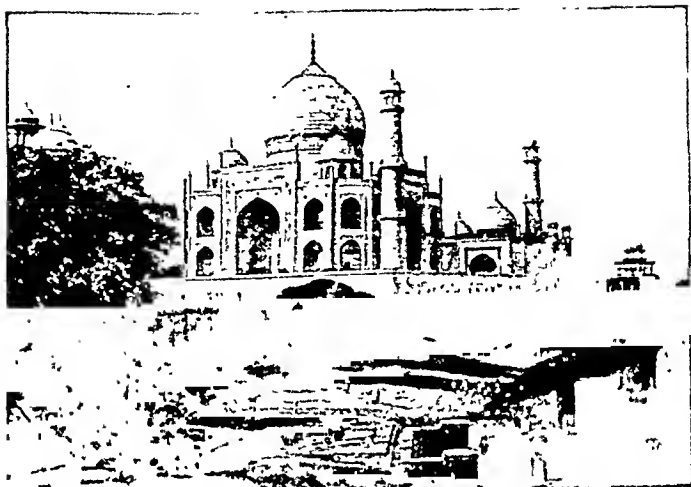
White Men in India. There was another Eastern country where white men were making their mark at this time. This was India. Portuguese merchants traded with Indian peoples from the beginning of the sixteenth century, but other nations soon became jealous of the Portuguese.

So an *English East India Company* was formed (on the very last day of the sixteenth century) to compete with the Portuguese; two years later a *Dutch East India Company* began to compete with the Portuguese and the English as well; and Richelieu (in 1642) started a *French East India Company*, which Colbert improved in 1664. By 1700 both Dutch and Portuguese had become too poor to continue the struggle against the wealthy merchants of England and France, and so the English and French East India Companies were left to compete with one another for the trade of India.

The Moghul Emperors : Akbar the Great. At this time India, like China, was under the rule of foreign emperors. These emperors and their followers were "Mongols" (like the Tartars), but the peoples of India called them "*Moghuls*." The greatest of the Moghul emperors reigned at the same time as the English Queen Elizabeth I—from 1556 to 1605. His name was Akbar, and he is known as *Akbar the Great* on account of what he did for India. When Akbar's grandfather, *Baber*, had conquered India with his Moghul armies, the whole country was in disorder,

under wealthy Indian princes who cared little about their peoples so long as the tax-collectors brought in plenty of revenue. Akbar tried to give good government to as much of India as possible ; and he did give it to most of north India. He made the tax-collectors be less unfair to the poorer people ; he even stopped taxing the followers of the *Hindu* religion (to which most of the native Indians belonged) more severely than those who were followers of Mahomet, like himself. Then he divided his lands into fifteen provinces, and put a good governor over each of them to govern it well. He did all he could to spread education—he even said he would like every boy to be able to read books of science, mathematics, religion, politics, and (above all, he said) history. And he made it easier for those who could read to write to one another. Letters and goods could be sent by camel-post all over his empire, and there were good inns along the main roads for travellers to use.

Shah Jehan. Government like this soon made the Moghul Empire wealthy and strong and very highly civilised. It reached the height of its splendour under Akbar's grandson, *Shah Jehan* (1627–1658), who made a new capital for the Empire at Delhi (which the Muslims still call Shahjehanabad—"the city of Shah Jehan"). Here he built a magnificent palace and a no less magnificent mosque for Muslim worshippers ; and in the palace he used to sit upon the famous "Peacock Throne," which cost him over £6,000,000 to make. But though Delhi was his capital, his favourite resort was the city of Agra. Here he and his wife spent their happiest days ; and here,



(Photo : Mansell)

The Taj Mahal

Who built it? When? Why?

Why is it one of the most famous buildings in the world?

when the Empress died, he built for them both the most beautiful tomb in the world, the *Taj Mahal*. With its lakes and gardens, its heavily-jewelled walls, and, above all, its perfect proportions, it appears to many who see it not only the most beautiful tomb, but the most beautiful building, in the world.

The Decay of the Moghul Empire. But Shah Jehan's son, *Aurangzeb*, was unworthy of his ancestors, and under him the Moghul Empire began to decay. Aurangzeb tried to conquer too much; his wars against the princes of southern India cost even him more than he could afford; and when, to get more

money, he began again to tax the Hindus unfairly his own peoples turned against him. Then to foes within were added foes without, when the warlike *Sikhs* in the valley of the upper Indus, and the still more warlike *Marathas*, with their fierce troops of skilled horsemen, turned against him. Aurangzeb died in 1707, and his death was the signal for disorder to break out all over India. Marathas and Sikhs ravaged the centre and the north-west; the *rajahs* (governors) of the provinces of the Empire made themselves practically free from the Emperor's control, so that *Bengal*, *Oudh*, and the rest were soon independent states. Above all, both the French and the English in India soon learned how to turn all this disorder to their own account. Before long India was simply the battlefield on which English and French fought for mastery.

Books to read :

NOVELS

Herbert Strang : JACK BROWN IN CHINA (*O.U.P.*) : A SERVANT OF THE COMPANY (*O.U.P.*).

GENERAL

E. and R. Power : BOYS AND GIRLS OF HISTORY, Book II (*C.U.P.*). MORE BOYS AND GIRLS OF HISTORY, Books I and II (*C.U.P.*). P. T. Srinivas Iyenagar : A SHORT HISTORY OF INDIA (*O.U.P.*). H. E. Marshall : INDIA'S STORY (*Nelson*). CHILDREN'S ENCYCLOPEDIA (8 vol. edition), pages 1551, 1695-1700, 4042; (10 vol. edition), pages 2809-11. THE BOOK OF KNOWLEDGE, pages 848, 1931, 2449, 3483.

SOURCE READING :

In the Lands of the Great Moghul

In the years 1656 to 1659 a French Doctor, François Bernier, went out to India, staying in Egypt for some time on his way. He remained in India till 1668, and

when he came home he wrote letters to important men about what he had learned in the East. One of these letters was to Colbert. Here is a part of it.

Much of this huge country is quite fertile. Some of it (for instance, the great kingdom of Bengal) produces more rice, corn, and other necessities than even Egypt itself, as well as non-Egyptian goods such as silk, cotton, and indigo. In many districts of India there is a large farming population, cultivating the land very well, besides work-



(British Museum)

The weaver

An Indian painting of Moghul times.

men who, though lazy by nature, make a living by the manufacture of carpets, lace, embroidery, cloth of gold and silver, and all sorts of silks and cottons, either for sale in India or for export. . . .

Still, in spite of such rich resources, there are in India many signs of poverty and hardship. These vast stretches of land include many which consist of nothing but sandy wastes or barren mountains, with very few inhabitants and a very poor cultivation. Even the fertile districts are frequently untilled, owing to lack of labourers, many of whom die of the treatment they receive from their rulers. Often, if they cannot pay everything their greedy lords demand, their farms are taken from them, and sometimes, even, their children are sold as slaves. For this reason, many of them have abandoned country life, to seek employment in the towns, or in the armies, as porters, water-carriers, or noblemen's servants. Some have fled to the lands ruled by the rajahs, because there they find better treatment and less tyranny.

Besides, there are in the Empire of the Great Moghul numbers of peoples of whom he is not really master, since they still have their own rajahs and chieftains. These lesser rulers often refuse obedience to the Moghul, paying him as little tribute as they dare—sometimes none at all.

Exercises on the Source Reading

1. Who was Colbert, and why should Bernier send letters to him about India?
2. What made Bernier compare India with Egypt?
3. Who was Great Moghul when Bernier set out for India? Who was Moghul when Bernier arrived? What was each famous for?
4. According to Bernier, in what ways was India in the seventeenth century (a) a rich country, (b) a poor country?
5. What can you learn from this letter about (a) farming, (b) manufacture, (c) the rule of the Moghul Emperors, in seventeenth-century India?

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER X

To the TIME CHARTS you have already made, covering the fifteenth to the eighteenth centuries, add the following : Akbar the Great, Wan Li ; Foundation of European East India Companies ; the Manchu conquest of China ; Shah Jehan ; Aurangzeb ; K'ang Hsi.

Draw one of the following MAPS :

1. Eurasia, marking (without details) the following countries ; Britain, France, Germany, Russia, India, China. Draw right across it the latitude of the place where you live.

2. Indo-China, marking the following : River Indus, River Ganges, Yellow River, Peking, Delhi, Agra, Bengal, Oudh, Manchuria.

Draw an inset of Britain on the same scale.

Questions

A

1. What do you know about the following : Mings ; Wan Li ; Jesuits ; Manchuria ; Manchus ; Baber ; Shah Jehan ; Taj Mahal ; Aurangzeb ; Sikhs ; Marathas ; Bengal ; Oudh ?

2. What is the meaning of : Moghul ; Shahjehanabad ; mosque ?

3. What did the Manchu emperor K'ang Hsi do for China ?

4. What did the Moghul emperor Akbar the Great do for India ?

5. Why did the Moghul Empire begin to break up under the Emperor Aurangzeb ?

6. What do you know about the doings of Europeans in the Far East in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries ?

B

7. In what ways do the Chinese seem to look at things differently from Europeans ?

8. Which do you think was the more civilised country in the seventeenth century—China or India ? Give your reasons

CHAPTER ELEVEN

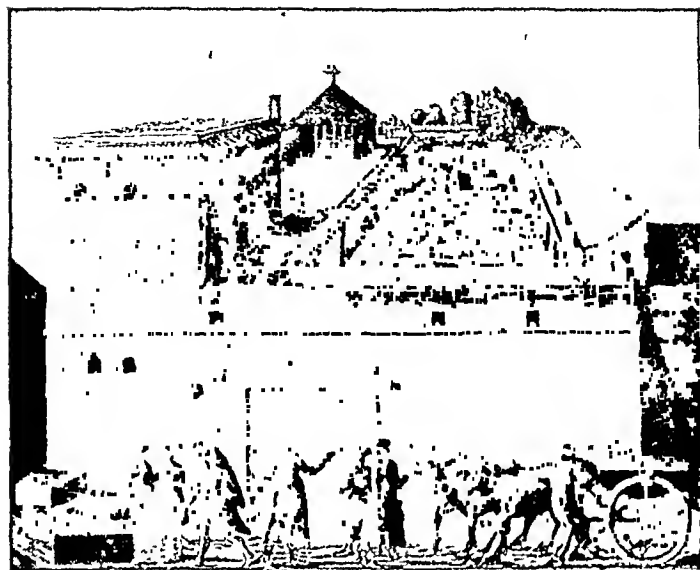
FRENCH AND BRITISH IN INDIA AND AMERICA

The Break-up of the Moghul Empire. If you look at the map of India in the eighteenth century¹ you will see how the Moghul Empire was breaking up

at that time. Away in the south of India no one took any notice at all of the Emperor, and one of his *nawabs* ("governors") of Hyderabad threw off the Emperor's lordship, and made himself *nizam* (ruler) of Hyderabad. Before long, Hyderabad became one of the strongest of the states of India. It was much the same down the valley of the River Ganges, where the nawab of Oudh and the nawab of Bengal ruled their provinces in a quite independent way, though they did keep their old title of nawab as a sort of pretence that they were still loyal to the Emperor.

But the Emperors had even worse troubles nearer home. The Marathas to the south were becoming more and more daring, and were constantly attacking the Emperors. At the same time the armies of Afghanistan kept invading the remains of the Moghul Empire from the north-west. The two peoples even used to meet and fight out their own rivalries on Moghul territory, and in 1761 the Afghans beat the Marathas at *Panipat*—one of the most famous battles in Indian history.

British and French Merchants in India. Long before this, however, the merchants of the French and English East India Companies were doing all they could to turn the troubles of India to their own advantage. While the Indians were fighting so much among themselves, the trade of the companies was suffering, and both of them wanted some sort of peace and order to be re-established so that their profits should begin to increase again. There were important French *factories* (as the depots were called) at *Chandernagore* in Bengal and at *Pondicherri* in the



(O.U.P.)

A European factory in India in the eighteenth century

Carnatic, in south-east India ; and there were important English factories at the Bengal town of *Calcutta*, at *Madras* in the Carnatic, and at *Bombay* on the western coast. When there was peace, the wharves and warehouses of these factories were all noise and bustle with the loading and unloading of cargoes, while the clerks in the offices near by were kept busy at their accounts. But when Indian armies were about, trade was at a standstill ; and even if the clerks and porters did not mind their enforced idleness, there was soon trouble

from the Directors at home, complaining because profits were down again.

Dupleix and His Plan. At last a Frenchman hit on what looked like being a good solution. The handful of white men in India could not do much to stop the Indians from fighting—especially as the French and English were not willing to help each other. So *Dupleix*, who was in charge of all the affairs of the French company in India, decided that it was best to take part in the Indian wars instead of hindering them. He encouraged rival Indian rulers to quarrel for lands in various parts of India; then he would help one of the rivals with French money and French soldiers, so that the French company would be sure to get the trade of the new ruler when he was safely established in his new dominions. *Dupleix* also discovered that Indians made very good soldiers if they were trained in European methods of warfare, and before long the French Company had quite a big army of native *sepoys* which it could use to further its schemes.

Clive the Clerk. *Dupleix* was a very great man; but he managed to make a vast fortune for himself in India, and the French did not trust him. It happened that at this time there was one of the clerks in the English company's offices at Madras who was going to beat *Dupleix* at his own game. *Robert Clive* did not like office work, but he did show his employers that he could be very useful to the army, both in connection with the soldiers' equipment and in actual fighting. So he became one of the company's officers—fortunately for himself and for the Company, and for England and the British Empire.

Clive the Soldier. It was not long before Clive had his opportunity. As usual, the English company and the French company were helping rival princes—this time in the Carnatic. The French were supporting the ruling nawab, and the English were trying to set up a different one. Clive was put in charge of an “army” of 200 Englishmen and 300 sepoys, and sent against the capital of the Carnatic, *Arcot*. To everybody’s surprise, he succeeded in capturing the city and then in holding it against a French and Indian army much greater than his own. Now that Arcot was in its hands the English company put its own man on the throne, and so got the bulk of the Carnatic trade for itself.

This was in 1751. At the beginning of that year the French company had looked like winning all along the line. But now Clive had made the English more respected in South India than the French. Soon he spread this respect into the north. The nawab of Bengal, *Suraj-ud-Daula*, did not like the English. In 1756 he attacked the Calcutta factory of the company and shut up in the “Black Hole of Calcutta” the 146 English prisoners he captured. During one night 123 of them died through being suffocated in their tiny prison, and Clive was sent to take revenge for the company. In 1757, at the battle of *Plassey*, Clive’s army of a thousand white men and two thousand sepoys defeated the nawab’s 70,000—of whom the last to give way were a body of forty Frenchmen.

Clive the Ruler ; and Warren Hastings. There were other battles after Plassey, but it was Plassey which really settled the fate of the English in India.

Bengal was soon completely under the English East India Company, and other parts of India came under its control one by one. In 1774 a Governor-General was appointed for all the company's lands in India—*Warren Hastings*. He was Governor-General till 1785, and he governed British India in much the same way as Clive had done after his victories. Both Clive and Hastings did more than improve the trade of the company. They took care that Indians were taxed more fairly than they had ever been under Indian rulers, and they set up law-courts to deal out justice to Indians and English alike. From their time India came more and more under the control of the British, until it was almost regarded as a completely British possession.

British and French Colonists in America. India was not the only part of the world where Englishmen and Frenchmen were rivals at this time. While the English and French East India Companies were fighting against one another for the wealth and trade of the East, English and French colonists were rivals for lands and wealth in the New World of the West. As we have seen already,¹ both English and French had established colonies in America during the seventeenth century—the map will show you where they were and what they were called. You can see that the English colonies were nearly all on the eastern coast of North America and the French ones along the great river valleys—especially the valleys of the St. Lawrence (*Canada*) and the Mississippi (*Louisiana*).

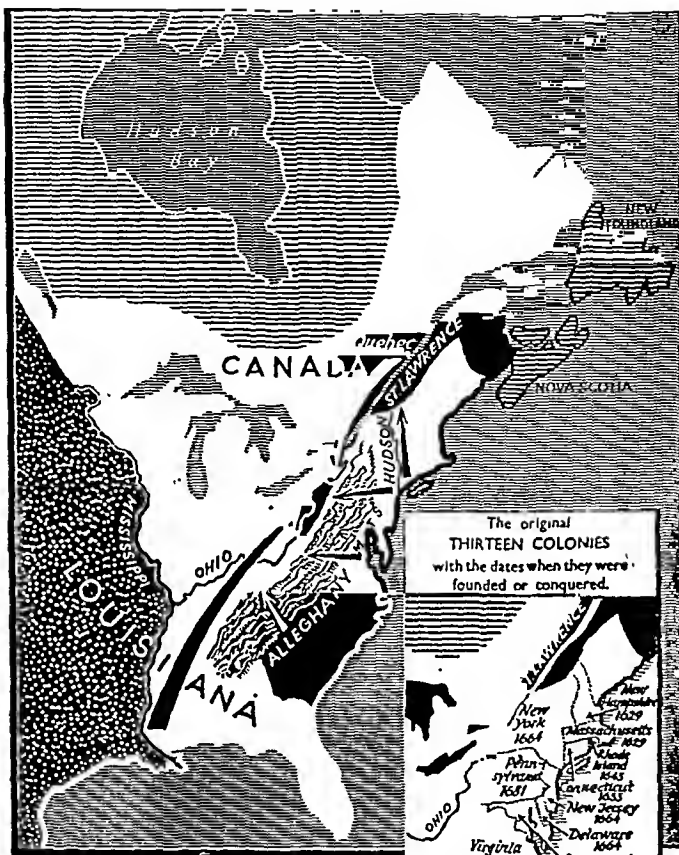
¹ See pages 74, 88.

Between the English and the French lands were vast prairies over which roamed huge herds of buffaloes and deer—the food of the Red Indians in those regions. The Red Indians tried to keep these hunting-grounds for themselves, but they could not stand up against the weapons of the Europeans, and it was soon certain that either the English or the French would win these lands for themselves. The question was—would the French spread eastwards from their river valleys till they reached the Alleghany Mountains? If so, would they go on and try to conquer all the English colonies? Or would they simply pen the English between the Alleghanies and the sea? Or would the English spread over the mountains and fight the French for the Indian lands first, and then for the river valleys?

The Gateways to Canada. This question was really settled by the Treaty of Utrecht, in 1713,¹ though no one realised this at the time. As we saw in Chapter Seven, that treaty gave England (among other places) Newfoundland and Acadie, or Nova Scotia.² These two lands at the mouth of the St. Lawrence have been called “the gateways to Canada,” because any country which possessed them *and a navy strong enough to rule the seas*, could also obtain control of the St. Lawrence valley. England had already proved during the War of the Spanish Succession that she was such a country. Then for twenty-one years she had a premier (*Walpole*, 1721–1742) who

¹ See page 88.

² Acadie was renamed *Nova Scotia* to celebrate the uniting of England and Scotland under one Parliament as *Great Britain*. This took place in 1707.



The first British Empire in America

How does this map illustrate the difference between French and English ways of colonising?

How did England obtain each of the thirteen colonies named in the smaller map?

kept her at peace and doubled her trade, while France and other nations were fighting wars and making themselves poorer.

Pitt and the British Empire. Soon after the middle of the eighteenth century, she had another premier—*William Pitt*—who in four or five years made England the richest colonial power in the world. While he was premier from 1756 till 1761 (at the very time when Clive had just made England the strongest power in India) he spent England's wealth, new-won during the premiership of Walpole, on keeping the navy strong, and on paying other enemies of France to fight her in Europe. Then, while this was going on, he poured English troops into America in far greater numbers than the French could manage, because the English navy was too strong for them. The French navy was half destroyed in 1759 at the battle of *Quiberon Bay*—in the same year as the young general *Wolfe* carried out his famous surprise capture of Quebec. Wolfe (like the French general, *Montcalm*) was killed in the attack, but other generals carried on his work, and all Canada soon belonged to the English.

All this took place during the *Seven Years War* (1756–1763). Half Europe seemed to be taking part in this war, and Pitt had cunningly seized his opportunity. He had made England the greatest sea-power in the world and the British Empire the greatest Empire in the world, while France and the other states were too busy fighting in Europe to defend distant lands in India and America. The wars in Europe made India and America seem less important to France and

Austria and Prussia and Russia. In the next chapter we shall see why this was so.

Books to read.:

NOVELS

J. A. Altseler : *THE SUN OF QUEBEC* (*Appleton*). F. S. Breerton : *HOW CANADA WAS WON* (*Blackie*). E. S. Ellis : *THE FOREST MESSENGER* (*Cassell*). G. A. Henty : *WITH WOLFE IN CANADA* (*Blackie*) : *WITH CLIVE IN INDIA* (*Blackie*).

GENERAL

E. and R. Power : *BOYS AND GIRLS OF HISTORY*, Book II (*C.U.P.*). *MORE BOYS AND GIRLS OF HISTORY*, Books I and II (*C.U.P.*). Sir G. Dunbar : *CLIVE* (*Duckworth*). R. Gatty : *ROBERT CLIVE AND THE FOUNDING OF BRITISH INDIA* (*Putnam*). *CHILDREN'S ENCYCLOPEDIA* (8 vol. edition), pages 1008, 1114-5 ; (10 vol. edition), pages 1327-30, 2073-6, 2811-14. *THE BOOK OF KNOWLEDGE*, pages 654, 802, 879-80, 1505-6, 1782, 1931, 3252-3.

SOURCE READINGS :

(1) *Troubles of the English in India*

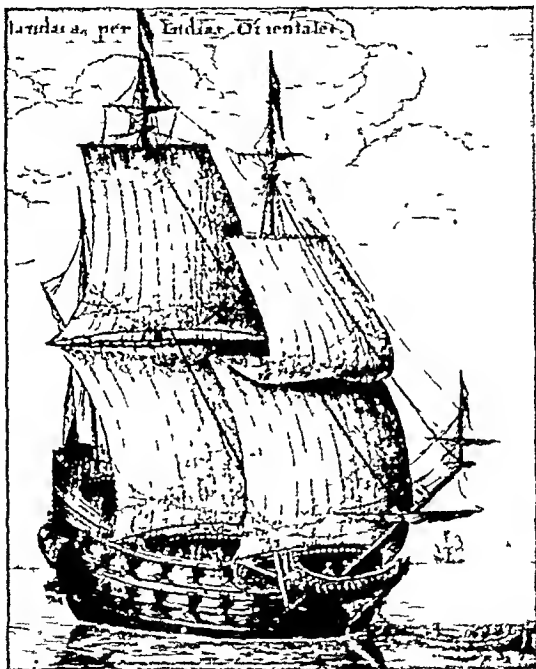
Part of a report from the French at Chandernagore describing the disasters to the English in Bengal in 1756. This report was written on December 16th, 1756.

The capture of Calcutta caused the ruin of all the small factories which the English owned in various parts of Bengal, and now they have not one single factory left there. Since this terrible affair only one ship has arrived from Europe. This brought on 250 men from Madras, but that is not enough, and so they have made no more plans yet. They are expecting at any time a fleet of six warships of the Royal Navy, and five of the Company's ships, which left the Carnatic on the fourteenth of October, bringing one thousand European troops and 3,000 sepoys. With these forces they will certainly be able to recapture Calcutta, which is now held by only a few Indians. But recapturing

it will not recompense them for their losses, as the colony is completely wrecked, so that it is by no means certain that the English will manage to hold it against the enormous army of the Nawab.

Exercises on Source Reading (1)

1. What is the meaning of the following : factories ; sepoy ; Nawab ?



An "East Indiaman," seventeenth century

These ships were specially built for the trade of the East India Company. Why is this merchant ship so well equipped with guns ? What route would it take to India ?

2. Who or what were : the Nawab ; Calcutta ; Madras ; the Company ; the Carnatic ?
3. According to this reading, why was the capture of Calcutta so disastrous to the English ?
4. What events preceded and what events followed those described in this reading ?
5. Why were the French so interested in these events ?

(2) *Troubles of the French in Canada*

A letter from the War Minister of France to General Montcalm, the Commander-in-Chief of the French forces in Canada during the Seven Years War.

19th February, 1759.

I am very sorry to have to inform you that you cannot hope to receive any reinforcements. Not only would they increase the scarcity of provisions from which you are already suffering too much, but they would be almost certain to be captured by the English on the voyage across. In any case, the King could not possibly send you help in proportion to the forces which the English are in a position to bring against you ; and therefore any effort made here in France to get reinforcements to you would only stimulate the Minister in London to make still greater efforts to keep the superiority he has gained in your part of America.

Exercises on Source Reading (2)

1. Why were the English in a position to get more troops to Canada than the French ?
2. Who was " the Minister in London " ?
3. What eventually happened to (a) Montcalm, (b) Canada ?

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XI

To your TIME CHART for the eighteenth century add, in the proper column, the following : battle of Panipat ; battle of Plassey ; Clive at Arcot ; Governor-Generalship of Warren Hastings ; Wolfe at Quebec ; Union of English and Scottish Parliaments ; premiership of Walpole ; premiership of Pitt ; battle of Quiberon ; Seven Years War.

On a MAP of North America mark the colonies added to the British Empire between 1700 and 1763.

Questions

A

1. What do you know about the following : Moghul Empire ; Afghans ; Marathas ; Panipat ; Chandernagore ; Pondicherry ; Calcutta ; Madras ; Bombay ; Dupleix ; Arcot ; Carnatic ; Suraj-ud-Daula ; Black Hole of Calcutta ; Plassey ; Warren Hastings ; Louisiana ; Nova Scotia ; Walpole ; Pitt ; Wolfe ; Montcalm ?

2. What is the meaning of the following : Nawab ; Nizam ; factory ; sepoy ?

3. What did Robert Clive do for the English in India ?

4. What part did Pitt play in building the British Empire ?

5. Explain how and why the English and French were rivals in North America.

B

6. Why were the English more successful than the French in (a) India, (b) North America ?

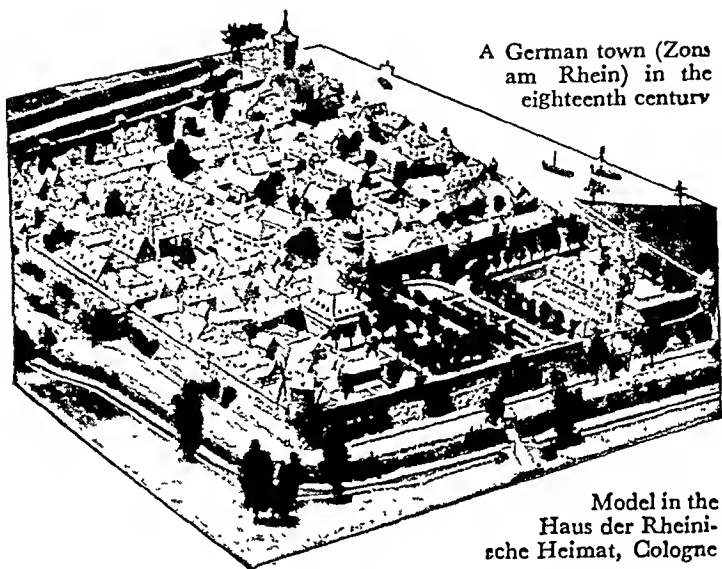
7. In what ways was the history of North America in the eighteenth century influenced by (a) rivers, (b) mountains, (c) the ocean ?

CHAPTER TWELVE

FREDERICK THE GREAT AND THE RISE OF PRUSSIA

INDIA and America were not the only places where Englishmen and Frenchmen were fighting each other in the middle years of the eighteenth century. They were also at war much nearer home—in Europe. But in Europe the war between England and France got mixed up with a quite different war, between Austria and Prussia, which had nothing to do with the colonies and trade about which the English and the French were fighting.

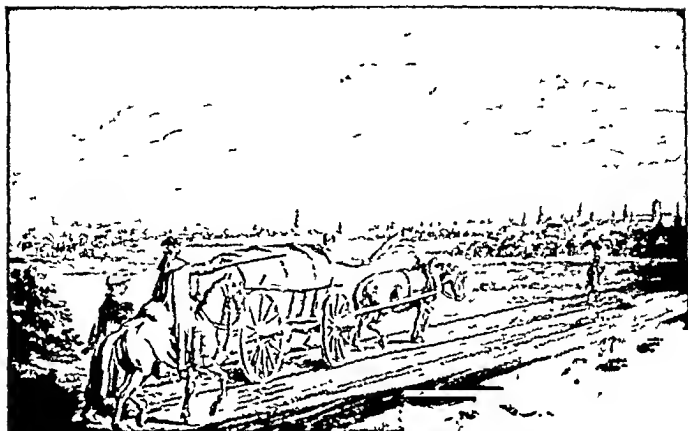
The Greater States of Germany. You will remember that in those times the country which we



now call Germany was divided into hundreds of separate states, some of them big and some quite little.¹ For hundreds of years the Hapsburg family, which ruled Austria and much else besides, had looked upon themselves as the chief people in Germany and really as the rulers of the German people. Nobody but Hapsburgs had been elected to be Holy Roman Emperors since the year 1438. But there were other important German families with great lands. The chief of these were the Wittelsbachs, who ruled Bavaria, and the *Hohenzollerns*, who were kings of Prussia.

If you look at the map you will see that Austria, Prussia, and Bavaria were the biggest of the German states. You will also see that the rulers of Bavaria

¹ See page 100.



Travel in eighteenth-century Germany

The rich man on horseback ; his servant walking.
The road has no made surface, and is full of ruts and pools.

follow Prussia's lead. So he looked out for an opportunity of beating Austria in war.

He had not long to wait. He had been king for less than six months when the head of the Hapsburgs, the Emperor *Charles VI*, died, leaving no son to succeed him, but only a daughter, *Maria Theresa*. Of course a woman could not be elected Holy Roman Emperor, and it was doubtful if all the Hapsburg lands would go on obeying her. Frederick thought that this was his chance ; so he claimed that his family had a right to the Hapsburg land of *Silesia*. Most of the rulers in Europe had not realised what Frederick knew very well—that the Prussian army was about the best in the world, because it had been drilled to an almost

perfect state by Frederick's father, grandfather, and great-grandfather. There was something else which even Frederick himself did not know yet—that he was soon to prove himself one of the world's greatest generals. To most people's surprise, Frederick's army overran Silesia very quickly in 1740; in 1741 he beat the Austrian army at *Mollwitz*; and in 1742 Maria Theresa surrendered Silesia to Prussia.

The Rival Camps in Europe. You would have expected that to end the war. But by now the war was too complicated to end so easily. Frederick the Great was not the only enemy of Austria. There had been lasting enmity between the Hapsburgs and the kings of France for over two hundred years—ever since the days of the Emperor Charles V.¹ There were Hapsburg lands touching the frontiers of France in the east—and especially in the Netherlands in the north-east, where the frontier was not at all clear—so that the French kings were afraid that the Hapsburgs might try to obtain parts of France. So when Frederick the Great went to war against Maria Theresa, France allied with him. And as the English were not going to let France be on the winning side in any war if they could help it, England allied with Maria Theresa.

Thus there were three wars going on together—Prussia fighting Austria for the chief place in Germany; France fighting Austria, as she had done for centuries, because each was afraid of the other's becoming too strong; and England fighting France about trade and colonies in India and America. After he had got Silesia, Frederick lost most of his interest in the war.

¹ See pages 27-9.

But all the others still had plenty to fight about, and so peace was not made till 1748, at *Aachen*. This peace ended eight years of war (they are always known as the *War of the Austrian Succession*), but it settled nothing. England went on fighting France in India and America ; and in eight years' time, Prussia, Austria, France, and England were all at war together again.

The Seven Years War. This new struggle was the *Seven Years War* (1756 to 1763). In it, England was still fighting France about colonies and trade, and Prussia was still fighting Austria about the leadership of Germany. But since the War of the Austrian Succession England and France had changed sides.



The Seven Years War—a contemporary cartoon

Austria (Maria Theresa) bowling, Prussia (Frederick the Great) batting ; France fielding at mid on ; England (George II and his son) waiting to go in (Notice the shape of the bat used in the eighteenth century—and two stumps instead of three)

France felt that Frederick the Great was becoming *too* great, and decided to help Austria to keep him down. England therefore allied with Prussia instead of Austria. As it happened, at this time England had a Prime Minister (the elder *Pitt*) who got on very well with Frederick the Great. Pitt saw what very few other people realised then—that what mattered most to England was not Europe but trade and colonies in India and America. So Pitt and Frederick came to an agreement by which England kept Frederick supplied with money and munitions for his armies, which could keep the French busy in Europe, while Pitt (as he boasted) “conquered America on the plains of Germany.” While Frederick’s armies were fighting the French on land, naval victories like *Quiberon Bay*¹ helped to make England mistress of the seas, so that she could get troops and supplies to America and India much more easily than the French could.

Frederick succeeded in beating the French and the Austrians, and proved that the Prussian army was the best in Europe. He therefore expected to share the gains of the war with England ; but in this he found that he was mistaken. Pitt ceased to be Prime Minister in 1761, and the English King George III made peace before Frederick’s own victories were complete. By the *Peace of Paris* (1763) between England and France, England gained (as we have seen ¹) Canada, as well as possessions and trade in India, whereas the *Peace of Hubertsburg* between Austria and Prussia gave Frederick hardly anything. He never forgave England for

¹ See pages 133-4.

betraying him like this. Before long, England would have been very glad of his alliance again, but this time it was Frederick who left England in the lurch, instead of the other way about.

Still, there was no doubt that Frederick the Great had made Prussia one of the great powers of Europe—in many ways the equal of older countries such as England, France, Austria, and Russia. He also made Prussia one of the best-ruled countries in Europe, and he deserves his name of “the Great” because of what he did for his people at home as well as because of his victories in foreign wars. He was, in fact, one of those “benevolent despots” about whom we shall read in the next chapter.

Books to read :

NOVEL

G. A. Henty : WITH FREDERICK THE GREAT (*Blackie*).

GENERAL

E. Priestley : BUILDERS OF EUROPE, Book III (*Dent*). L. H. Farmer : THE BOY'S BOOK OF FAMOUS RULERS (*Harrop*). THE CHILDREN'S ENCYCLOPEDIA (8 vol. edition), page 2529-30. THE BOOK OF KNOWLEDGE, pages 1503-4, 2925, 2988, 3252-3, 3689.

SOURCE READING :

Frederick the Great on Campaign

This is a letter which Frederick the Great wrote to his friend, the French writer Voltaire. You can read more about Voltaire on page 151.

In the neighbourhood of Herendorf, Silesia.

December 23rd, 1740

MY DEAR VOLTAIRE,

I received your two letters, but I have not been able to answer them till now. I am like the chess

king in your "Life of Charles XII," who was always on the march. For a fortnight now we have been on roads and trackways—all in the finest weather imaginable.

I am too tired to reply to your charming verses and too chilled to appreciate their charm properly. But that will come in time. You must not ask for poetry from a man who is actually doing the work of a waggoner—and often of a waggoner in the ditch !

Would you like to know what kind of a life I am leading ? We do seven hours marching till four o'clock in the afternoon. Then I dine. After that I start my day's work—receiving dull visitors and attending to boring details of business. There are awkward men to soothe, enthusiastic ones to restrain, lazy ones to stir up, impatient ones to pacify, greedy ones to keep within reasonable limits, talkative ones to listen to, silent ones to talk to. In fact, I have to drink with men who like drinking and eat with men who are hungry—be a Jew with Jews and a Gentile with Gentiles.

There you have my occupations. I would gladly pass them on to someone else, if the will o' the wisp called "Glory" did not appear so often to me. Really, it is all just folly—but a folly very difficult to give up once one is bitten by it. . . .

Good-bye once again, my dear Voltaire. Don't forget your absent friends.

FRÉDÉRIC.

Exercises on the Source Reading

1. In what ways was the military life of Frederick the Great different from what you expected ?
2. Where is Silesia ? Why was it important in this war ? What war was it ?
3. Write a letter describing an imaginary day in your life as though you were an officer in the army of Frederick the Great.
4. Find out what other books Voltaire wrote besides the "Life of Charles XII." What do you know about Charles XII ?

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XII

To your TIME CHARTS for the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries add the following : reign of the Great Elector ; battle of Febrbellin ; reign of Frederick the Great ; Prussian conquest of Silesia ; War of the Austrian Succession.

Draw a GRAPH to show the rise of Prussia, using the following dates : 1648 ; 1675 ; 1701 ; 1740 ; 1742 ; add 1795 after you have read Chapter Thirteen.

Draw a MAP showing the lands of the Hohenzollerns in (a) 1600, (b) 1800.

Questions

A

1. What do you know about the following : Hapsburgs ; Hohenzollerns ; Bavaria ; the Great Elector ; Pomerania ; Febrbellin ; Spanish Succession War ; Maria Theresa ; Silesia ; Mollwitz ; War of the Austrian Succession ; Seven Years War ; Peace of Aachen ; Peace of Paris ; Peace of Hubertsburg ; Pitt ; Quiberon ?

2. How was Germany different from most other European countries 200 years ago ?

3. Write an account of the life of Frederick the Great (if possible, read about him in other books, and also in Chapter Thirteen of this book).

4. Explain carefully why Prussia was usually at enmity with Austria and England with France, during the eighteenth century.

B

5. Why was Frederick II of Prussia called "the Great" ?

6. Which usual alliances between the great European countries changed, and which remained unchanged, during the eighteenth century ? Explain why in each case.

CHAPTER THIRTEEN

BENEVOLENT DESPOTS

How can a despot be benevolent ? If you look up the two words in a dictionary, you will find they are defined something like this : *benevolent* : well-wishing, kind-hearted ; *despot* : a tyrant. How can a "tyrant" be "kind-hearted" ?

The Age of Reason. Eighteenth-century folk, at any rate, saw no difficulty in this. The eighteenth century was a time when the upper classes in Europe tried to be as "correct" as possible in everything. They took care to be as correct as they could in their behaviour and in their clothing. There were "correct" places where fashionable people used to go for their holidays—such as Bath in England or Aachen in Germany. They liked their buildings to be "correct," so they built most of them according to the rules laid down by the ancient Greek and Roman architects (and it was they who gave to medieval architecture its silly name of "Gothic," which really means "barbarian"). They wrote their books, too, as much as possible like the books of Greece and Rome. And although they knew nothing about Greek and Roman music, they invented musical rules and fashions of their own which eighteenth-century composers such as *Bach* and *Handel* followed very strictly. In one way, they would seem to us the opposite of correct, because in that age the upper classes took little notice of religion. But even in this they *thought* they were "correct"—they felt too "reasonable" to be religious. In fact, the eighteenth century is often known as the *Age of Reason*.

The Benevolent Despots. That is why the "despots" were "benevolent." They wanted to be reasonable with their subjects, and treat them as correctly as possible. All over Europe there were rulers who *could* govern their subjects as they wished—and so they were despots; but they *did* govern their subjects in such a way as to make them better-off and more contented—and so these despots were also



(E.N.A.)

Haydn rehearsing a quartet

What is there in this eighteenth-century room (apart from the old-fashioned clothes) which you would not find in a modern room? What do you know about Haydn?

benevolent. Germany, with its hundreds of big and little states, had scores of such benevolent despots. The best-known of them were Frederick the Great of Prussia and *Joseph II* of Austria (the son of Maria Theresa : he reigned from 1765 to 1790). Both of these great rulers showed themselves interested in music. Frederick the Great helped Bach and his son ; Joseph II made *Mozart* his court composer ; and Joseph's friend Prince Esterhazy did the same

for *Haydn*. Frederick the Great also made friends with the French writer *Voltaire*, whose books were famous for their "reason" and their scoffings at the Church and religion.¹

Benevolent Despots at Work. One of *Voltaire's* best-known books is a history of the reign of the French king Louis XIV. Although he died more than a generation before benevolent despotism became fashionable, Louis XIV, with his hard-working ways² and his determination to make France and the French as prosperous and rich and comfortable as possible, was one of the first of the benevolent despots.

Frederick the Great was every bit as hard-working as Louis XIV had been. He used to get up at five or six in the morning and go through his letters and despatches till eleven o'clock. Then he went on parade with his troops till dinner-time. After dinner, he saw that his morning's orders were being carried out properly by his ministers. Only his evenings were given up to pleasure—especially concerts in the palace, or long talks with his friends or with famous people he liked to meet.

Frederick the Great and His People. We have seen already (in the last Chapter) what Frederick did to make Prussia powerful. He was just as keen to make pleasanter the lives of his subjects in Prussia. He established elementary schools all over the country. He did what he could to help farmers—especially by draining poor land and making it fertile and having canals constructed to carry the farm produce more

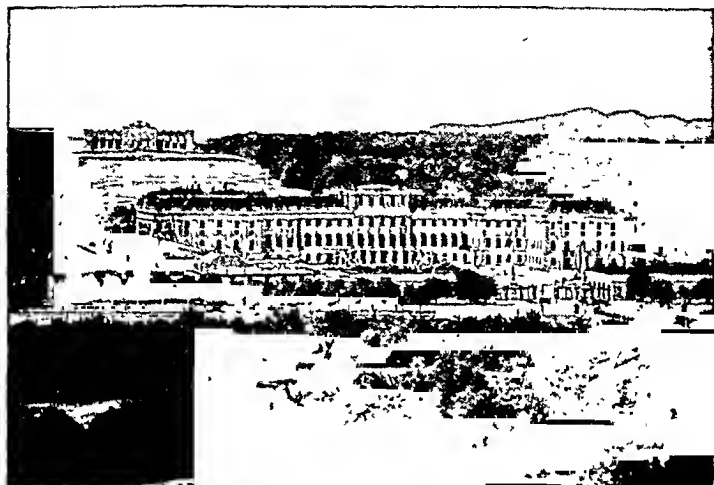
¹ There is a letter from Frederick the Great to *Voltaire*, on pages 146-7.

² See pages 90-91.

cheaply and quickly. Canals benefited the manufacturers, too; and, besides, Frederick made laws which helped the manufacturers to find new markets, and founded the Bank of Berlin to assist trade.¹ None of these things was forced on him in any way by his subjects. He ruled them as a despot, but as a despot who wished them well—a benevolent despot. In fact, he thought he was in duty bound to devote himself to his subjects' welfare, and although he ruled as he himself wished, he wrote in one of his own books: "The prince is not the absolute master but only the first servant of his people."

Joseph II and His People. All the other benevolent despots tried to rule in this way. Joseph II, for instance, was not interested only in music for his courtiers. He also did all he could to improve the lot of his poorest subjects. Many of the nobles were *still treating their people as peasants had been treated* in the Middle Ages, when everybody had a feudal lord who made his vassals work for him and pay him dues in season and out of season. Joseph abolished all the worst of these old rights of the nobles, and he put an end to serfdom in all his lands, so that all the peasants became free men. Then, to replace the courts in which the nobles used to try their vassals, Joseph gave every village its own law-court, with really good magistrates to preside over it. He even (like Frederick the Great) began to start elementary schools for the people of his various lands. And to help his subjects to study Nature, he laid out, in his

¹ In this, he was imitating the *Bank of England*, which had been established in 1694.



(E.N.A.)

The Palace and Gardens at Schönbrunn

Compare this with the picture of Versailles on page 90.

What signs are there that this palace and gardens were modelled on those at Versailles?

palace park at Schönbrunn, a botanical garden, like the English one made at Kew in 1730—only the Schönbrunn one had a zoo as well.

Pombal in Portugal. Then there was King *Joseph of Portugal* (1750 to 1777). During his reign his great minister *Pombal* established schools for his subjects—over 800 of them for ordinary lessons, and art schools and commercial schools as well. Pombal was particularly interested in commerce, and so he started new trading companies and tried to develop the Portuguese colonies for them to trade with. And inside Portugal he set up new industries to make the

country more prosperous—especially industries for manufacturing silk and woollen cloth, and paper and glass.

Gustavus III of Sweden. Another benevolent despot who did all he could to foster his country's trade was *Gustavus III* of Sweden (1771 to 1792). He even abolished the customs duties on corn, so that foreign ships could bring cheap corn for the Swedish people, and take back Swedish exports to their own countries. Later on, other countries copied him in this—but not for half a century or more. Like other benevolent despots, too, Gustavus introduced new laws which lightened the lot of his poorer subjects, and made it easier for them to get fair play in the law courts. He was one of the first European rulers to let newspapers and book-writers publish what they liked. He was a real book-lover, and he himself wrote some of the best plays there are in the Swedish language.

Catherine the Great of Russia. Even in Russia, which was still the most backward country in Europe, in spite of what Peter the Great had done for it, there was a benevolent despot. *Catherine the Great* (1762–1796) took an interest in authors and literature, and she started secondary schools for those who could afford them. She also reformed the Russian laws. But all this benefited the townsfolk and not the millions of Russian peasants, to whom Catherine's despotism was not so kindly after all.

The Partition of Poland. Catherine is much more famous because, with two other "benevolent despots," she was responsible for one of the most unfair things done in the eighteenth century. It was

done not to their own subjects but to a foreign country—Poland. For a long time Poland had been badly governed, and there were constant disputes as to who should be the king. At last, Catherine the Great, Frederick the Great, and Joseph II got together and decided to divide Poland among themselves. This they did, in three stages; finally, in 1795, the whole of Poland was partitioned into three shares, of which one went to Prussia, one to Russia, and one to Austria.¹ Poland ceased to exist altogether until it was revived again in our own century, at the Treaty of Versailles in 1919. During those 124 years all the people of Poland had to obey the rulers and laws of these three foreign countries, and even use their foreign languages and follow their foreign customs.

Books to read :

GENERAL

E. Priestley : BUILDERS OF EUROPE, Book III (*Dent*). L. H. Farmer : THE BOY'S BOOK OF FAMOUS RULERS (*Harrah*). F. J. Rowbotham : STORY LIVES OF GREAT MUSICIANS (*Wells Gardner*). Percy Scholes : THE BOOK OF THE GREAT MUSICIANS (*O.U.P.*). CHILDREN'S ENCYCLOPEDIA (8 vol. edition), pages 3246-9, 3631-2 ; (10 vol. edition), page 4297. THE BOOK OF KNOWLEDGE, pages 305, 1503-4, 2331, 2925, 3252-3.

SOURCE READING :

Plans of a Benevolent Despot

This is part of a memorandum which Joseph II wrote out for his own guidance, as soon as he became ruler of Austria and its empire.

Studies must be encouraged. Therefore universities must be established in the provinces, where people have few opportunities of making good use of their leisure time

¹ The map on page 140 shows the partition of Poland.

England but also over his colonial subjects in America. He failed in England and America as well ; and in America he failed so badly that the English colonies there rebelled and broke completely away from the British Empire.

The Thirteen Colonies. There were thirteen English colonies in North America. Most of them had been established there in the seventeenth century,¹ and they were all very prosperous. In southern colonies, such as Virginia and Carolina, the colonists were doing very well with their tobacco and cotton plantations, which they cultivated with the help of negro slaves. In the north, Massachusetts, New York, and the others found that shipping and fishing paid them best. Whatever their business, all the thirteen states managed their affairs for themselves. Each of them had its own "Assembly," or parliament, and its own "Governor," who took the place of the king in his own state. In fact, they were thirteen little democracies where the people lived like Englishmen and obeyed English laws.

They did, it is true, find some of the laws rather troublesome—especially the *Navigation Acts*, which restricted their trade a good deal. According to these laws they had to send many of their goods to England and nowhere else, and in English ships too, and this often meant that they had to put off good customers. However, they got over this by smuggling and disregarding the *Navigation Acts* in other ways, and for a long time the English government did not seem to mind.

George III and the Colonies. But when George III became king (in 1760), he determined to alter all this. He was going to be a despot, benevolent but firm, in America as well as England. He decided that the colonies were to obey the Navigation Acts strictly. He even went further and tried to tax the Americans to pay for part of the cost of the Seven Years War. He and his ministers said that the English victory in the Seven Years War had driven the French out of North America and left the rich valleys of the Mississippi and Ohio rivers for the English colonists, and that therefore the Americans ought to share the cost of the war. But the colonists replied that the English Parliament had no right to tax them, because they had their own assemblies, to which they elected members, and only the assembly of a colony could tax the people of that colony. It is easy to see that both the king and the colonists were partly right and partly wrong. After years of arguing the colonists decided that they must fight for their rights ; and so, in 1775, began the *War of American Independence*, which lasted till 1783, and ended in England's losing nearly all her colonies in North America except the newly conquered Canada.

The War of American Independence. The thirteen colonies could not have fought a successful war against England if they had not agreed to act together. So they elected a sort of joint parliament for all the colonies ; it met at Philadelphia, and they called it the *Congress*. Each of the states sent its own representatives to this Congress, and Congress managed the war for the colonists. They appointed

as commander-in-chief one of the representatives of Virginia—a rich Virginian planter named *George Washington*, who for many years had been a member of the assembly of Virginia and so was used to the difficulties of government.

The Declaration of Independence. But the most important thing done by the Congress at Philadelphia was not fighting or appointing generals but explaining to the rest of the world why they wanted to break away from the British Empire. *Thomas Jefferson*, one of Washington's fellow-Virginians in the Congress, was asked to write out a declaration about the colonists' point of view, stating that they were no longer English subjects and why. This was the famous American *Declaration of Independence*; it was passed by the Congress on July 4th, 1776, and that is the day which the United States always celebrates as its birthday. The Declaration of Independence said that George III had mis-governed the colonies and that the colonists were therefore no longer bound to obey him; then it gave a long list of the things which George had done to offend them; and, finally, it declared that "these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British Crown; and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved."

The Fighting. However, there was a great deal of fighting to do before this independence was really gained. To the surprise of most of the rest of the world, the colonists began to get the best of it from the

very first. One reason for this was that the English Government took a long time to realise how serious the rebellion was. But another reason was that Washington showed himself a most skilful commander, choosing the best men for his generals and knowing when to attack and when to lie low. There were really two separate wars—one in the northern states and one in the states of the south. The Americans won the northern one quite early—in the year 1777, when a whole English army was ambushed and forced to surrender at the battle of *Saratoga*.

After that, England's fortunes went from bad to worse. In 1778 France joined the war as an ally of the Americans—for the French hoped to have their revenge on England for the conquest of Canada and their lands in India, and perhaps to win back Canada for France. Then Spain and Holland joined the colonists, in 1779 and 1780—Spain because she was friendly to France, Holland because the English navy was interfering with her trade with America. There was even a league against Britain (called the *Armed Neutrality*), consisting of neutral countries which objected to English men-of-war searching their merchant ships. This league included even our late ally Prussia, for Frederick the Great had not forgiven England for deserting him at the end of the Seven Years War.¹

Worst of all, the English lost the command of the sea for the only time in the eighteenth century (and for one of the very few times in their history). The French admiral *De Grasse* beat the English fleet at the battle

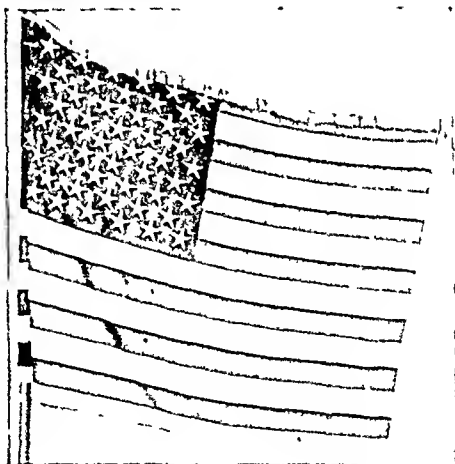
¹ See pages 145-6.



The Beginnings of the United States

of *Cape Henry* at the very time when the one remaining English army was being besieged in *Yorktown* (1781). Shut in by land and sea, the English eventually had to give in, though the final *Peace of Versailles* was not signed till 1783. By this treaty England lost her original colonies in North America and had to begin to build up a new empire elsewhere. More important still, a new and mighty country was born—the United States of America, whose thirteen states have become fifty.

United States. Yet the United States is not fifty countries, but one country. This is because the thirteen states which had joined together for the war



U S Army photograph

The Flag of the United States

Thirteen stripes for the original thirteen states. Fifty stars for the present states.

remained joined together afterwards. Massachusetts and Virginia and Georgia and the rest of them kept their own assemblies and governors, and so each one of them was able to govern itself in its own way in matters which were its own concern. But for matters which concerned all thirteen alike, they kept the Congress, which became the "parliament" of all the United States. It has a *House of Representatives*, elected by the people of the States; and it has a *Senate*, elected by the separate states. A country ruled like this, with many states each governing itself in its private affairs, and yet with a central government for the common affairs of them all, is called a *federation*; and the United States has shown how successful a "federal" government of this kind can be.

Washington, the First President of the U.S.A. The chief credit for making the U.S.A. into a successful federation belongs to George Washington. When the war was over, everybody in America felt that he was the one man to guide the new republic in the difficult times ahead of it. So he became the first President of the United States in 1789. He was elected for four years only (as all the presidents of the United States still are). But when his four years were over, he was elected again for another four years. By the time he retired in 1797 the United States was well on its way to become one of the leading states of the world, and its capital city was called Washington in honour of its first President.

The Second British Empire. In spite of this fearful loss, England did not remain long without a

great empire. Canada had been conquered during the Seven Years War ; and only a few years before the War of American Independence *Captain Cook* had explored the coasts of New Zealand and Australia, and in 1770 claimed them for Britain. During the nineteenth century Canada, Australia, and New Zealand all became great nations, members of a British Empire which was bigger than ever.

Books to read :

NOVELS

W. H. G. Kingston : HURRICANE HURRY. THE IMAGINARY EYE-WITNESS (*Longmans*).

GENERAL

E. and R. Power : MORE BOYS AND GIRLS OF HISTORY, Book II (*C.U.P.*). M. Gaunt : GEORGE WASHINGTON (*Black*). H. Hayens : MAKERS OF NATIONS. H. E. Marshall : THE STORY OF THE UNITED STATES (*Nelson*). W. M. Thayer : BENJAMIN FRANKLIN (*O.U.P.*) : GEORGE WASHINGTON (*O.U.P.*). CHILDREN'S ENCYCLOPEDIA (8 vol. edition), pages 1008-9, 1114, 1355-6, 1453, 2020-22 ; (10 vol. edition), pages 1637-8. THE BOOK OF KNOWLEDGE, pages 618, 1500, 1577, 1919-21, 3400, 3717-20.

SOURCE READING :

Part of the American Declaration of Independence, July 4th, 1776

We hold these truths to be self-evident :

That all men are created equal : That they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights : That among these are Life, Liberty, and the pursuit of Happiness : That to secure these Rights, governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed : That whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the Right of the People to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new government. . . .

The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute Tyranny over these states. . . .

We, therefore, the Representatives of the United States of America, in general Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the World for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these Colonies, solemnly publish and declare: That these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states. That they are absolved from all allegiance to the British Crown: and That all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is and ought to be totally dissolved.

Exercises on the Source Reading

1. What does the first paragraph of this reading mean? Do you agree with it?
2. What were the "repeated injuries and usurpations" by the English king about which paragraph 2 complains?
3. What was the "Congress" mentioned in paragraph 3? Where did it meet? What is Congress in the U.S.A. now? Where does it meet?
4. Learn by heart the first or third paragraph (or both) of this reading.

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XIV

To your TIME CHART for the eighteenth century add the following: the reign of George III of England; the War of American Independence; the Declaration of American Independence.

Draw a GRAPH showing the increase and decrease of British possessions in North America, 1700 to 1800.

Draw a MAP of North America, showing British possessions in (a) 1750, (b) 1770, (c) 1790. Name the "Thirteen Colonies," and insert the date of the establishment of each.

Questions

A

1. What do you know about the following: George III of England; the Navigation Acts; Congress; George Washington; Thomas Jefferson; the Declaration of American Independence; Saratoga;

Armed Neutrality ; Cape Henry ; Yorktown ; Peace of Versailles, 1783 ; Captain Cook ?

2. What is the meaning of each of the following : benevolent despot ; democracy ; cabinet system ; federation ?

3. How did the people of the thirteen English colonies in North America (a) earn their living, (b) govern themselves ?

4. For what different reasons did the thirteen colonies decide to leave the British Empire ?

5. For what different reasons did England lose the War of American Independence ?

B

6. In what ways were the Americans (a) right, (b) wrong, in their quarrel with England ?

7. Read other books about George Washington and write an account of his life.

8. Explain how the U.S.A. is governed.

CHAPTER FIFTEEN

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

IN the War of American Independence many Frenchmen had helped the Americans to win their freedom. As we saw, the French navy played a most important part in the war ; and, besides, there were many French volunteers in the American army. These volunteers were so pleased with the new American republic that when they got back home again they tried to persuade the French that they too would be better under a republic than under their Bourbon kings. It happened that at this time the French were very ready to listen to advice like that, because they were feeling dissatisfied with their king and his rule. The American War had done something else besides teach Frenchmen to be republicans. It had cost

France millions of pounds, and the French government could not afford it. They had had war after war during the eighteenth century and their old-fashioned methods of collecting taxes could not stand the strain. The French people were being taxed more and more, so that they had less and less to spend. Yet prices were rising all the time, and that made the people of France feel poorer than ever.

The Nobles and the Peasants. Besides, taxation in France was very unfair. The poorer people had to pay most—so much that about four-fifths of their incomes had to be paid out to either the government



(Photo: Mansell)

Ready for Revolution : an eighteenth-century cartoon
The French peasant is crushed by the clergy and the nobles.

or the Church, and they had only the remaining one-fifth for themselves. Yet the nobles, who were well-off, and the clergy, who could all feel safe from starvation, had to pay hardly anything at all. Besides this, most of the country-people had to work for either the nobles or the government, or both, in their scanty spare time. The French still continued the old feudal customs by which the peasants had to do unpaid work on the land of their lord. In addition, they were forced to mend roads and ditches and bridges—and even to buy such things as salt from the government, whether they wanted it or not, and whether or not they could have bought it cheaper from someone else.

Books, Readers, and Revolution. Things were even worse than this in many other countries in Europe ; but in those countries the poor people were too downtrodden to dare to complain. It was not so with the French. Even in France the peasants themselves did not complain very much ; but the middle classes in the towns did—such people as merchants, shopkeepers, and so on. Many of these townspeople could read, and they did read eagerly books which found fault with affairs in France, and which suggested ways of putting things right. The writings of men like *Voltaire*,¹ which condemned or poked fun at so many things in French life, were very popular. More popular still was a book called “The Social Contract,” by *Rousseau*. In it Rousseau argued that any government which did not do its work well could be, and should be, overthrown by its subjects.² The people,

¹ For Voltaire, see pages 146-7, 151.

² The American Declaration of Independence said the same thing (page 166).

said Rousseau, agree to obey their government while it rules them well ; whenever the government rules badly, the people need not keep their agreement ("contract") any longer. This sort of book gradually persuaded the French people that they would be right to change their government. Then came the American War, with the returned French volunteers urging the French to form a republic of their own. Finally, the government of Louis XVI found itself almost bankrupt and had to increase taxation still more. This was the last straw, and in 1789 the French Revolution broke out.

The Revolution and the King. On July 14th, 1789, a Paris mob burnt down the *Bastille*—the prison where rebels against the government were kept. The prisoners were released by the rioters, who wanted to show that they were not going to let such a govern-

prices were very high, and everywhere in France the people were tired of war and revolution and anxious to get back to a normal quiet life. There were plots and rebellions against the revolutionary government, and they were only put down by the terrible *Reign of Terror*, in which thousands of people, innocent as well as guilty, were condemned to be executed by the newly invented *guillotine*. During this most terrible period of the Revolution the government of France was in the hands of the party called the *Jacobins*, who were prepared to go to any lengths. Their leader was *Robespierre*, and under his rule (during 1793 and 1794) as many as 300 people were sent to the guillotine nearly every month.

The End of the Revolution. This sort of thing could not last. Eventually the more moderate people among the revolutionaries managed to have Robespierre himself executed, and finally, in 1795, France was put under a kind of dictatorship of five men, called *Directors*. The *Directory*, as it was called, ruled France for the next four years. It was helped to power by the ruthlessness of a young French general, Napoleon Bonaparte, who became more and more useful to the Directory as time went on—till at last he became its master and made himself the ruler of France. In the next chapter we will read about the life of this man, who was certainly one of the greatest men of all time.

Results of the French Revolution. What good did the French Revolution do? When it began, an English statesman described it as "the best thing that has ever happened," because he believed that it would bring freedom to downtrodden French people. So

it did, and to other peoples besides, outside France. And although the Revolution led to the dictatorship of Napoleon, which was even stricter than the rule of the Bourbon kings, it also led to the great reforms of Napoleon, which made France one of the best-governed countries in the world. The Revolution had one other result, which at first seemed rather small. This was the introduction of the *decimal system* of reckoning. During the nineteenth century this decimal system was adopted by all the chief countries in the world (except the English ones), so that, after all, it has been more important than many of the more spectacular results of the French Revolution.

Books to read :

NOVELS

G. Bearne : *IN PERILOUS DAYS (S.P.C.K.)*. A. H. Biggs : *THE MARQUIS' HEIR (S.P.C.K.)*. F. S. Brereton : *FOES OF THE RED COCKADE (Blackie)*. C. Dickens : *A TALE OF TWO CITIES*. Baroness Orczy : *SCARLET PIMPERNEL NOVELS (Hodder and Stoughton)*. Rafael Sabatini : *SCARAMOUCHE (Hutchinson)*.

GENERAL

E. Priestley : *BUILDERS OF EUROPE*, Book III (*Dent*). A. Birkhead : *THE STORY OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION (Harrap)*. Mary Macgregor : *THE STORY OF FRANCE (Nelson)*. *CHILDREN'S ENCYCLOPEDIA* (8 vol. edition), pages 1009, 2267-74, 4053-62 ; (10 vol. edition), pages 647-54, 4255-8. *THE BOOK OF KNOWLEDGE*, pages 490-1, 1509-13, 2030, 2144, 2255-6, 2436-7, 2888, 3098, 3136, 3689.

SOURCE READING :

Revolutionaries at Work

Each French township had its own revolutionary government, which ruled the people of the district in accordance with the ideas of the revolutionary government

at Paris. Here is an account (taken from the town register) of how the Council General of the township of Fresnes treated its people.

This fifteenth day of May, 1793 (second year of the French Republic), the Council-General decided on a house-to-house visit, and summoned the Committee of General Safety and the National Guard in order to ensure protection for the law.

We visited the house of Citizen Charles Paris, where we inspected the amount of sixteen bushels of barley which he had declared to be in his possession. On measuring them, we found twenty bushels over and above the amount declared, and we confiscated four of them for the use of the poor of the township.



(Photo. Mansell)

A Revolutionary Committee at work

The rich family (entering the room) is being forced to give up the title-deeds to its lands.

Next we went to the house of Edmée-Louise Guiyon, where we found that, over and above the twenty bushels of rye flour which she had declared, she had also four bushels of barley flour. After the visit was over, we found that the Widow Guiyon was in unlawful possession of four bushels of wheat flour, which we confiscated for the use of the poor of the township. . . .

During this same visit, at the house of Citizen Guiyon, while inspecting the grain and flour, we found that in her granary she had an illegal fireguard, with a *fleur-de-lys*¹ upon it. We do not know whether this was to remind her of the old rule of the kings, which she was so sorry to see disappear. We therefore arrested her and imprisoned her in the Town House, and we beg that she may be examined and punished with the utmost rigour of the law.

Exercises on the Source Reading

1. What do you suppose were the duties of the Council-General, the Committee of General Safety, and the National Guard in a French township during the Revolution?

2. Why were the town authorities so anxious to know how much corn and flour everyone had?

3. For what different offences was "Citizen Guiyon" punished? What was the punishment in each case?

4. Why was the title "Citizen" introduced during the French Revolution?

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XV

To your TIME CHART for the eighteenth century add the following: outbreak of the French Revolution, 1789; French Revolutionary War, 1792-1802; Reign of Terror, 1793-1795; the Directory, 1795-1799.

Draw a GRAPH showing the fortunes of the French Revolution, marking the following points: Fall of the Bastille, 1789; execution of Louis XVI, 1793; Reign of Terror, 1793-5; Directory, 1795-1799.

Draw a MAP of France, shading differently the frontiers in (a) 1789, (b) 1799.

¹ The *fleur-de-lys* was the badge of the Bourbon kings of France.

Questions

A

1. What do you know about the following : Bourbons ; Voltaire ; Rousseau ; Bastille ; Marie Antoinette ; Robespierre ; the Directory ?
2. What is the meaning of the following : " social contract " ; War of the French Revolution ; Austrian Netherlands ; Batavian Republic ; Reign of Terror ; Jacobins ?
3. What were the various causes of the French Revolution ?
4. Describe the events of the Revolution in France.
5. Describe the events of the French Revolutionary War.
6. What were the chief results of the French Revolution ?

B

7. Write an imaginary diary describing your life in Paris at the time of the French Revolution.
8. " The best thing that has ever happened " ; discuss this English description of the French Revolution.

CHAPTER SIXTEEN

NAPOLEON

From Cadet to General. In the summer of 1769 the Italian island of Corsica ended a long civil war and was taken over by France. So when, a month or two later, Napoleone Buonaparte was born, he was French, in spite of his Italian name and Italian parents ; and when he was old enough he was sent to a French military college to train as an army officer.

By the time the War of the French Revolution broke out Napoléon Bonaparte (he was spelling his name in a French way now) was ready for his military career. All his life through he seemed fated to be up against the English, and it was fighting against the English that he first distinguished himself. This was in 1793,

when Napoleon, commanding the artillery, did as much as anyone to prevent the English from controlling *Toulon*, one of the two chief ports of the French navy.¹ Then, in 1795, again with his artillery, he helped to end the Reign of Terror and establish the more moderate government of the Directory in France. The Directors were not slow to realise how valuable he was, and he was soon made a general.

General Bonaparte. At this time France seemed to be fighting against half Europe. Austria, Prussia, England, Holland, and Spain, all afraid that the Revolution would spread to their own countries, joined in a great "Coalition" against the French; but to everyone's surprise the French had the best of the fighting. Prussia, Holland, and Spain soon felt that they could go on no longer, and Austria and England were left to face the French alone. It was Napoleon who forced the Austrians too to give up. In one battle after another (*Lodi*, *Arcola*, *Rivoli*) the skilful generalship of Napoleon outwitted the best armies of Austria, and she was compelled at last to make peace with France at *Campo Formio* (1797). By this peace, though Austria was allowed to take Venice in Italy, she gave up all hopes of winning back the Austrian Netherlands, which were part of France for the next seventeen years. Holland had already been conquered and made into the *Batavian Republic*,² so that France now ruled as far as the Rhine—and, worse still for England, France controlled all the best ports near the English Channel—Antwerp, Rotterdam,

¹ The other is *Brst*.

² See page 173.

Amsterdam, and the rest. Thus England's trade was threatened with destruction, at the very time when England was left to fight the French without any allies.

Napoleon in Egypt and Syria. Then the French decided to strike at England's trade in the East as well as her trade in the West. In 1798 Napoleon was sent with an army to the eastern Mediterranean. He conquered Egypt from its rulers, thinking he might perhaps push eastwards down the Red Sea and try to ruin the English trade with India. He might even go on and conquer India itself. However, he found that this was too much. So, instead, he marched northward into Syria. Syria itself was well worth having; and no doubt Napoleon had dreams of greater conquests still in Asia Minor. But he was driven back by an English army in Syria; the French fleet was hopelessly beaten by Nelson at the *Battle of the Nile*; Napoleon's army was trapped; and Napoleon himself left it to its fate and managed to get back secretly to France.

The First Consul. In France great events were afoot at this time. Even the Directory was failing to rule the country well, and Napoleon arrived just in time to take matters into his own hands. He broke up the Directory and gave France a new government, with three *Consuls* at its head. The first of these consuls was Napoleon himself, and all the world knew that he was now the real ruler of France. He remained its ruler for the next fifteen or sixteen years—from 1799 till 1804 as First Consul and from 1804 till 1814 or 1815 as Emperor. During all those years he was fighting the



The career of Napoleon

(A contemporary cartoon)

His steps upward are: (1) Boy; (2) Cadet at the military college; (3) Lieutenant at Toulon; (4) General at Arcole; (5) First Consul of the Republic; (6) Emperor. His steps downward are: (1) Expulsion from Spain; (2) Retreat from Russia; (3) Flight from Germany. Through the arch, Napoleon is seen in exile on St. Helena.

How many of these "steps" can you date?

foreign foes of France, and at the same time ruling France herself better than she had ever been ruled before. He was the greatest of modern dictators.

Napoleon's Rule in France. It was while he was still First Consul that Napoleon began to give France this excellent government. First of all he settled France's quarrel with the Roman Catholic Church. During the Revolution the rulers of France had tried to do away with the Christian religion, and they had made the clergy of the Catholic Church, and even the bishops, servants of the State. To all good Catholics this seemed wrong, and it led to no end of troubles. So in 1801 Napoleon made with the Pope an agreement, called a *Concordat*. By this agreement the clergy still counted as servants of the State ; but they were at liberty to take their religious instructions from the Pope, and thus to feel loyal members of the Catholic Church as well as loyal Frenchmen.

Napoleon now turned his attention to other needs of the French people. One of these was education, which Napoleon meant to reform from top to bottom. He began at the top, and as a matter of fact, he never had time to reach the bottom—that is, the elementary schools. But he did give France a new university, the *University of France*, which ever since has been one of the best in the world. And he also established many new *lycées* (as French secondary schools are called), and even fixed the lessons which had to be taught in them.¹

Another gift of Napoleon to France was a new system

¹ You can read part of one of these lessons in the Source Reading to this Chapter.

of laws. It was named, after the Emperor, the *Code Napoléon*, but of course it was really the work of legal experts to whom he entrusted this task. Till now, France had hardly had a single system of laws. Each province had its own customs which the local people obeyed. The Code Napoléon set up the same laws for all ; and to see that these laws were obeyed each of the new *departments* into which France had been divided was put under a *prefect*, and each of the *communes*, or townships, had its own *mayor*.

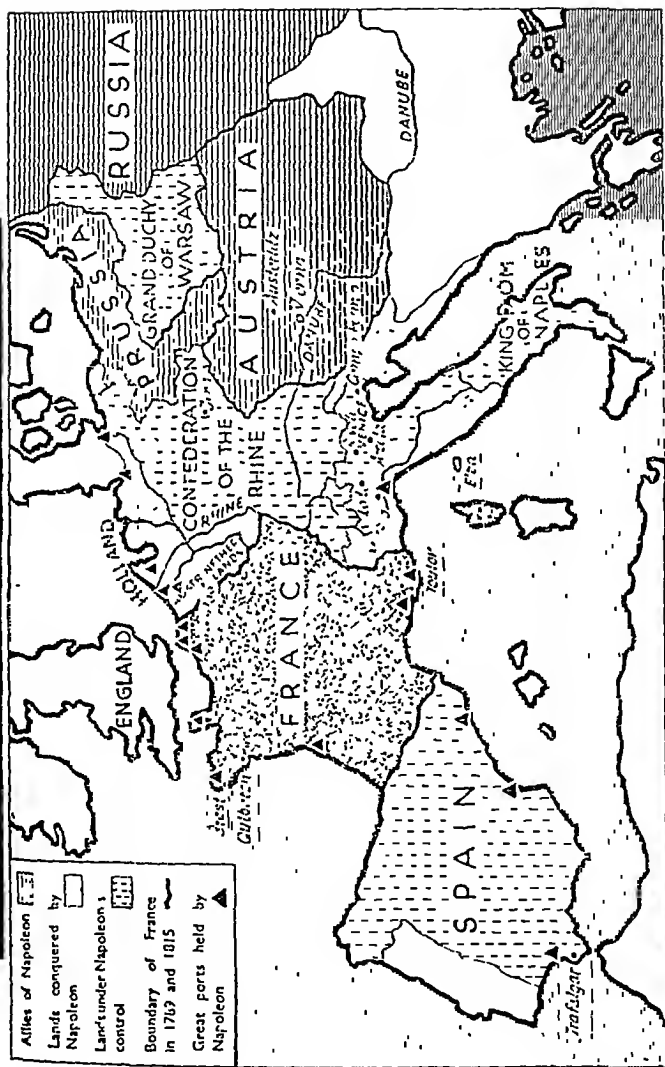
Napoleon and Europe. These were only a few of the things which Napoleon did for France. Yet all the time he was also occupied with European wars—wars which never ceased all through his reign as Emperor, and in which he fought all the great nations of Europe one after another, and often all together. In 1800 (at the great battle of *Marengo*), and again in 1805 (at *Austerlitz*), he forced Austria out of fresh coalitions against him ; and in 1806, at *Jena*, he overthrew the other great German power, Prussia.

Napoleon and England. But he was sure that his most dangerous enemy was England ; and being an island with a strong navy, England was very difficult to fight. It was a long time before Napoleon gave up the hope of invading and conquering England. For years he kept his best army on the coast of the English Channel, ready to cross over in specially made barges as soon as the French navy could keep the British navy away for a few hours. But those few hours never came. Finally, the French and Spanish navies were routed by Nelson at the battle of *Trafalgar* (1805).

Napoleon was therefore compelled to try another scheme. This time he decided to starve England into surrender. He was now master of nearly all Europe, and so he ordered all ports in countries under his control to be closed to English ships and English goods. You can see from the map how many of these ports there were—almost all the ports of Europe from the Baltic Sea to Italy in the Mediterranean (except those of Portugal). But still the English navy was mistress of the sea, and so English ships could do fairly safely what the ships of other countries dare not attempt. Napoleon's *Continental System* (as it was called) therefore failed to break down English trade, though it did it a great deal of harm, and prices in England went up to terrible heights during the rest of the war.

Napoleon and the Nations. By this time Napoleon was Emperor or overlord of half the nations in Europe; and all of them were getting tired of constant war and high prices. Napoleon himself was Emperor of many Germans near the Rhine; his brother *Louis* had been made King of Holland; his brother *Joseph* had been made King of Spain; and his general and brother-in-law *Murat* King of Naples, in South Italy. Most of the German states, united in the *Confederation of the Rhine*, were bound to obey him; so was the new *Grand Duchy of Warsaw* which he had set up in the place of broken Poland. He was married to an Austrian princess, and both Austria and Prussia seemed compelled to be his allies.

Yet all these nations were longing for an opportunity to throw off the tyrant's yoke—for by now



Europe in the days of Napoleon

For what is each of the names in *small type* famous?

All the lands shaded were either controlled by Napoleon or friendly to him at one time or another. How does this compare with the lands controlled by Hitler, or friendly to him?

Napolcon was a tyrant to them all. The Spaniards began it. The English navy could easily take armies to Portugal, and these armies could help the Spaniards against the French. This struggle is always known as the *Peninsular War*. The English commander was *Wellington*, and it took him from 1808 to 1814 to drive the French out of Spain. By that time Napolcon was in other trouble elsewhere.

Napoleon and Russia. The people of Europe were tired of Napolcon's rule ; yet Napolcon could think of no other way of quietening them except by war. At last he attempted a task too big even for him. For a time he had forced even Russia to ally with him ; but at last the Tsar turned against him, and Napolcon took his best army across Europe and invaded Russia. Six hundred thousand men set out for Moscow in 1812 ; but Moscow was too far away for them and the weather of that winter was terrible. Only twenty thousand of them came back in 1813—twenty-nine men out of every thirty had perished. And the rest still had Europe to fight. Napolcon got fresh troops from France, but they were not good enough ; all the nations were against them, and in 1814 Napolcon had to confess himself beaten at last. He gave up his throne and was exiled in the Italian island of Elba.

The Battle of Waterloo and the Peace of Vienna. Now it was necessary to set Europe right again. The statesmen of Europe met in congress at Vienna, and it took them over a year to settle a satisfactory peace. While the *Congress of Vienna* was still at work, Napolcon suddenly reappeared and made himself Emperor again for a hundred days. But the odds were too great. He was



Napoleon as Europe's whipping-top

(A contemporary cartoon)

Britain, Prussia, and the other Great Powers are whipping Napoleon, while the smaller countries look on.

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XVI

To your **TIME CHART** for the eighteenth century add : Battles of Lodi, Arcola, Rivoli, 1796-7; Napoleon in Egypt and the battle of the Nile ; Napoleon First Consul.

Begin a **TIME CHART** for the nineteenth century, and in it put : Napoleon Emperor ; battles of Marengo, Austerlitz, Jena, Trafalgar, Waterloo ; Peninsular War ; Napoleon in Russia ; Peace of Vienna.

Make a **GRAPH** to illustrate the fortunes of Napoleon, 1795 to 1815.

If you are interested in military affairs, make a **PLAN** to illustrate any of the battles of Napoleon mentioned in this Chapter ; *or*

Draw a **MAP** to illustrate any of Napoleon's campaigns.

Questions

A

1. What do you know about the following : Toulon ; Brest ; Campo Formio ; Battle of the Nile ; Trafalgar ; Marengo ; Austerlitz ; Jena ; Waterloo ; Continental System ; Confederation of the Rhine ; Grand Duchy of Warsaw ; Nelson ; Wellington ; Congress of Vienna ?

2. What is the meaning of the following : Batavian Republic ; Concordat ; lycée ; commune ; Peninsular War ?

3. Write an account of the life of Napoleon.

4. How much of Europe did Napoleon control at different times, and in what different ways ?

5. In what different ways did Napoleon try to conquer England ? Why did he fail ?

6. What benefits did the French people get from Napoleon's rule ?

B

7. If you are interested in ships, prepare and write an account of the Battle of Trafalgar and of the manœuvres which led up to it. *Or*, write an essay on " Nelson as an Admiral."

5. If you are interested in military affairs, prepare and write an account of the battle of Waterloo and of the campaign which led up to it ; *or* write an essay on " Napoleon as a General."

CHAPTER SEVENTEEN

EXPERIMENTS AND INVENTIONS

DURING the last two hundred years more differences have been made in the way people live than in any

two centuries before. It was in the eighteenth century that these changes began to be really rapid. Think of the common things which came into use then: teacups; umbrellas; pianos; sandwiches; daily papers; gas lighting; pantomimes; sea-bathing; bands in the parks; general hospitals; vaccination;



(Photo: Science Museum, S. Kensington)

A London Street in the eighteenth century

The gate in the background is old Temple Bar.

artificial respiration; even the first life-boat; and many other things as well.

Scientists and their Experiments. It was because (as we have seen) the eighteenth century was the Age of Reason—the age of thinking—that these changes became so rapid then. Men were thinking not only how to change governments and make them fairer, but also how to change their own lives and make them

pleasanter. And the scientists were thinking about science just for the sake of the science itself—because they wanted to understand more about things. An Italian scientist discovered how fast sound travels, and a Danish and an English scientist discovered the speed of light. *Fahrenheit*, a German, invented the first really good thermometer scale—we are still using it. But it was in chemistry that the greatest discoveries were made. In fact, the eighteenth century is often called the Age of Chemistry, because it was then that chemists began to carry out really careful experiments. The greatest of the experimental chemists were a Frenchman (*Lavoisier*), an Englishman (*Priestley*), and a Swede (*Scheele*). Lavoisier showed how to use delicate balances for accuracy in experiments, and in this way he made far-reaching discoveries—that “matter cannot be destroyed”; that air and water are not “elements,” as men thought till then, but “compounds” of different gases; that one of these gases is necessary both to breathing and to burning. Lavoisier called this all-important gas *oxygen*, but it was either Priestley or Scheele who first succeeded in collecting any of it—we are not certain which, because both of them brought their experiments to a successful conclusion some time in the year 1774.

Farmers and their Experiments. These discoveries of the chemists are among the most important the world has ever known; but at first other discoveries—practical inventions—made more stir. Many of the most useful of these practical discoveries were made by experimenting farmers. All over Europe farmers were coming to feel that the old-fashioned

methods of cultivating the soil were no longer good enough. In many places the land was still divided into strips, as it had been in the Middle Ages—strips of good farmers alongside the strips of bad ones, whose weeds regularly ruined their neighbour's crops. Even the good farmers had to leave about a third of their land uncultivated every year because they did not know how to use it properly. During the eighteenth century all this was changed. The most important experiments were made by two English farmers, *Tull* and *Townshend*, who showed how to grow root crops (turnips and clover and so on) in alternate years, and the German *Thaer*, who introduced the use of chemical manures. Both of these methods restored the richness of the soil for growing corn again. Besides, root crops were excellent for feeding cattle during the winter, so that fewer cattle had to be killed off in the autumn and there was more fresh meat for everybody. Other farmers (*Bakewell* in England and the Italian *Mascagni* were the best-known) made experiments in breeding sheep and cattle and improving grass for pasture, so that by the end of the eighteenth century farm animals yielded better meat, better wool, and better leather.

The "Agricultural Revolution." Besides using new methods in this way, farmers in the eighteenth century began to use machinery on their land. Drills for sowing seed and machines for threshing were invented at this time, and of course they made farming much easier and quicker and more productive. But they also made it much more expensive. Only rich men could afford to buy the new machinery and to wait for their profits while the breeds of animals were

improved. Consequently farming got more and more into the hands of rich men. They bought farm machinery ; and they also bought up much of the land of poorer men, often at an unfairly low price. These poorer men could no longer afford farms of their own, and therefore they often had to become the labourers of the richer men.

Even the villages changed in appearance, especially in England. Rich and go-ahead farmers would not put up with having their land in scattered strips in the old way. Instead, they made agreements to redivide the land so that each man could keep all his own land together, and enclose it by permanent hedges or walls or fences. That is why there are nowadays so many hedges all over the English countryside—far more than in most other countries, where there were few *enclosures* of this kind. In France and Germany, for example, the peasants did not allow their lands to pass to the rich men nearly so much, and in those countries farms are still much smaller than in England and much less surrounded by hedges. These changes in farming and country life were so great that they are often known as the *Agricultural Revolution*.

Manufacturers and their Experiments. The same sort of thing was happening in manufacture as in agriculture, and helping to bring about an *Industrial Revolution*. Many new machines were invented during the eighteenth century, especially in the various processes of cloth manufacture. Like the agricultural machinery, most of these spinning and weaving inventions were English. At first they simply made hand-weaving and then spinning simpler and cheaper. But

it was not long before hand-weaving began to go out of fashion, as machines were invented to take the place of men. The earliest of the "power-looms" depended on water-power, and so they were erected in "mills," along the banks of quickly-moving hillside streams. That is why most cloth factories are still called "mills," though they long since ceased to be worked by water-power.

Coal and Steam. But the inventors of the eighteenth century were busy with yet more far-reaching inventions. Several unsuccessful attempts were made to produce a steam engine which was not too expensive to work before *Watt* hit upon his two favourite devices—the condenser and the cooled cylinder. Watt's engines soon became known as the best in Europe, and many of them were sent abroad, especially to France—and so were many of the new machines. England was well ahead of all other countries in these inventions of the "steam age." She was well ahead, too, in mining coal for the engines. And the engines did their share in return, for they were often used to drive the pumps which kept the coal-mines clear of water. In fact, steam engines were employed for pumping long before Watt learned how to make them drive wheels.

Coal and Iron. There was plenty of coal in England for these engines and machines, but iron also was needed for making them, and iron was very dear to produce. This problem set the inventors trying to devise methods of smelting iron with coal furnaces, instead of charcoal furnaces—the only profitable way known as yet. Here again many inventors failed

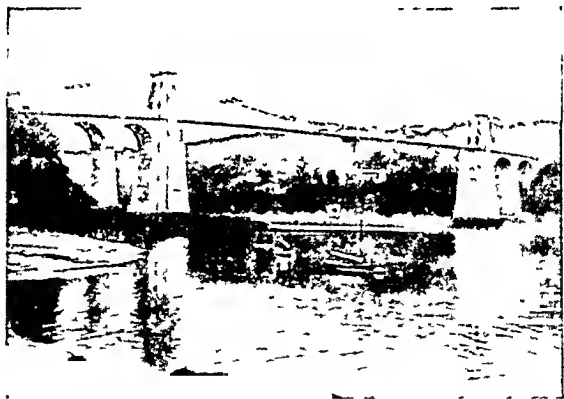
still further ahead in the manufacturing race between the peoples of Europe. Foreigners bought English machines, and English engines to drive them, and even the cloths and other things which English machines were making. So before long England became the richest country in the world.

However, France made great progress, too. About the year 1800 the looms of *Jacquard*, at Lyons, began to turn out lace and other materials which were better than anything England could make, and Lyons became what it still is—one of the most important towns in the world for the manufacture of high-quality laces and silks. Frederick the Great, too, “benevolent despot” as he was, took care that Prussia was not left out of the great competition. Prussia had lands which were rich in coal and iron—especially Silesia, which had been conquered from Austria in the War of the Austrian Succession.¹ The great wars of Frederick were over by 1763, and during the next ten years more than 250 new iron foundries were built in Prussia.

Canal Transport. Cloths and machines and engines cannot be carried from town to town and from country to country without good means of transport. This was where England was most lacking. France (under Louis XIV), Prussia (under Frederick the Great), Austria (under Joseph II and his mother Maria Theresa) had constructed and developed good canal systems, and these were just suited for the new heavy traffic in machinery, and for carrying even light goods cheaply. But England had very few canals till half-way through the eighteenth century. Then

¹ See page 142-3.

England drew ahead in canal construction too—thanks to the genius of *Brindley*, who soon covered the country with a network of really first-class waterways. He began with the *Bridgewater Canal* in 1759, leading from the Duke of Bridgewater's mines at Worsley to the growing town of Manchester—and by this new route Manchester got its coal at half the old price. Then he designed the *Grand Trunk Canal*, connecting the Trent with the Mersey and so providing a water-route across England ; and the *Staffordshire and Worcestershire Canal*, linking the Trent and the Severn from north to south. In all, Brindley built over 350 miles of canals, and other English engineers followed his example.



(Photo British Railways.)

The Menai Suspension Bridge, built by Telford

Road Transport. But canals were not enough. Road transport was needed, too. In France the roads were fairly good and they had been planned along the

most useful routes. In England roads were so rutty that very few of them were safe for carriages, and they had hardly been planned at all. At the very beginning of the nineteenth century, however, this was improved by two great Scottish engineers—*Telford* and *Macadam*. Telford was best at planning routes, grading hills, and building bridges at the best points¹; Macadam showed how to surface roads—and the best surfacing is still named after him. Before long better carriages were travelling along these better roads, all of which helped to build up the wealth and prosperity of Britain.

Results of the Industrial Revolution. These vast changes left a lasting mark upon the face of Europe and upon the lives of the people. As machinery became more important, factories and towns grew bigger. They produced more things for people to use—but they made the homes of the people less pleasant to live in, with less fresh air to breathe. By the year 1800 Manchester had grown from a little place with about 8,000 inhabitants to a great town with 100,000. Liverpool and Birmingham were nearly as big, Leeds and Sheffield not far behind. It was the same abroad—not so much in France, where the people have never taken kindly to big towns; but in Prussia Berlin grew more than tenfold in the eighteenth century; and Holland even became the first country to have more than half its people living in towns.² This

¹ One of his best roads is that from Birmingham to Holyhead, with its famous bridge across the Menai Straits between Wales and Anglesey.

² Even now there are only five countries in this condition—Belgium, Holland, Britain, Germany and Australia.

growth of the towns went on all through the nineteenth century, bringing with it many new problems which are still far from being solved.

Books to read :

GENERAL

C.S.S. HIGHAM. PIONEERS OF PROGRESS : D. H. Peacock : MEN OF SCIENCE. H. W. Dickenson : JAMES WATT : CRAFTSMAN AND ENGINEER (C.U.P.). C. R. Gibson : HEROES OF THE SCIENTIFIC WORLD (*Seely*). D. B. Hammond : STORIES OF SCIENTIFIC DISCOVERY (C.U.P.). E. Protheroe : THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION (*Collins*). E. and R. Power : BOYS AND GIRLS OF HISTORY, Book II (C.U.P.). D. M. Stuart : THE BOY THROUGH THE AGES (*Harrop*). THE GIRL THROUGH THE AGES (*Harrop*). CHILDREN'S ENCYCLOPEDIA (8 vol. edition), pages 588, 681, 1387, 1438, 2468-72, 3600, 4474 ; (10 vol. edition), pages 4499-4501, 5939-42. THE BOOK OF KNOWLEDGE, pages 73, 565, 703, 1018-9, 1523, 3407-8, 3732-4.

SOURCE READING :

Poverty and Progress in the Days of Napoleon

Here are extracts from two diaries. The first was written by one of Napoleon's soldiers during the campaign in Russia in 1812 ; the second was written by Napoleon's wife during her travels in France. By comparing the two accounts you can realize what a great difference there was between countries (like France) which were going through the Industrial Revolution, and countries (like Russia) which the Industrial Revolution had not yet reached.

(1) *Russia in the Days of Napoleon.* The peasants' houses in these parts usually consist of nothing more than four walls of rough-hewn tree-trunks fastened together, with one big opening in the thatched roof instead of a chimney. The windows are just small holes, covered with greased paper instead of glass. The peasants have no beds, but sleep on straw, and cover themselves with sheepskins. All their household utensils are simply wretched. However,

most of the houses have a loom, as the peasants make their own cloth at home—and very coarse cloth it is. In winter they wear a sheepskin over their cloth garments. Very often there is a hand-mill in the house for grinding the rye from which their black bread is baked. It is very difficult for a foreigner to realise the utter poverty of these peasants.¹

(2) *France in the Days of Napoleon*. Rouen is a very big town, with 80,000 inhabitants and a flourishing trade (especially in cotton goods and sugar), and I had plenty of sights to choose from. I went out at twelve o'clock and saw the new bridge which is being built by the Emperor's orders—it is very beautiful indeed. It was begun two years ago and will take eight more years to finish. It presented some difficult problems, because the water at this point is forty feet deep. I was also shown plans for the new quays and for an Exchange which is to be built by the bridge. Here are yet more of the benefits conferred by the Emperor on his people! How can they help loving and worshipping him?

From there I went along the valley which extends for nine miles from Rouen in the direction of Deville; it is really lovely. There are plenty of factories here. One fine spinning-mill which I saw employs more than 600 people, and contains many new machines, all much too complicated for me to understand.²

Exercises on the Source Readings

1. Why was the town of Rouen developing so rapidly in Napoleon's time?
2. Where would most of the machines mentioned in the second reading come from? Why? Was there anything particularly strange in this at this time?
3. What were the chief differences between cloth-making in France and in Russia at this time? Why were there these differences?
4. For what reasons was Russia so much more backward than France at this time?

¹ From Gaspard Schumacher's "Journal and Souvenirs."

² From "Carnets de Voyage de Marie-Louise" (Masson).



Napolcon visiting a Cotton Factory at Rouen

GENERAL EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XVII

Questions

A

1. What do you know about the following : Fahrenheit ; Lavoisier ; Priestley ; Scheele ; Tull ; Townshend ; Thaer ; Bakewell ; Mascagni ; Watt ; Darby ; Smeaton ; Jacquard ; Brindley ; Telford ; Macadam ?
2. What is the meaning of the following : Agricultural Revolution ; Industrial Revolution ; enclosures ; the Steam Age ; the Age of Chemistry ?
3. Who were the most famous scientists in eighteenth-century Europe, and for what was each famous ?
4. What were the chief improvements during the eighteenth century in (a) farming, (b) manufacture, (c) transport ?

B

5. Explain how and why farming and manufacture came to be controlled by rich men in this period.
6. Read other books about any one of the people mentioned in Question 1, and write a short account of his life.
7. What (a) good, (b) harm, came from the changes described in this chapter ?

INDEX

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